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GEOLOGICAL MINERALOGY.—KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—Professor PENNANT, F.R.S., will commence the Second Part of his COURSE of LECTURES on MINERALOGY, with a view to facilitate the Study of Geology, and of the application of Mineral Substances in the Arts. The Lectures will be illustrated by an extensive Collection of Specimens, and will commence on WEDNESDAY MORNING, Jan. 21st, at Nine o'clock. They will be continued on each succeeding Wednesday, at the same hour. Fee One Guinea.

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ARUNDEL SOCIETY.—ELGIN MARBLES.—CASTS from Mr. Cheverton's reduction of the THESEUS, in which a Prize Medal was awarded at the Great Exhibition) may be obtained on application to Mr. Mackay, at Messrs. P. & D. Colnaghi's, 13 and 14, Pall-mall East. Price 25s. for Members of the Arundel Society (12s. 6d.).

SOCIETY OF ARTS, 18, JOHN-STREET, ADELPHI.—LECTURES on the EXHIBITION.—The Seventh Lecture of this Course, 'On Machines and Tools for Working in Metal,' will be delivered by the Rev. Professor R. WILLIS, F.R.S., &c., on WEDNESDAY EVENING, January 28th, at Eight o'clock.

BOTANICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.—DISTRIBUTION OF BRITISH DUPLICATES in FEBRUARY 1852.—NOTICE to MEMBERS.—WEDNESDAY, 28th instant, will be the LAST DAY for receiving Lists of Duplicates, which must be marked on, or in accordance with, the 'London Catalogue of British Plants,' published for the Society, 25, Bedford-street, Strand, in January, 1852.

RAY SOCIETY, established in 1844 for the PUBLICATION of WORKS on NATURAL HISTORY.—The Council have made arrangements whereby they are enabled to supply to Subscribers from the beginning complete Sets of their published Works, a List of which may be had by application to the Secretary.

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The following Works are preparing for publication: Vol. III. of AGASSIZ'S and STRICKLAND'S BIBLIOGRAPHY of GEOLOGY and ZOOLOGY. Part VI. (being the last published) of ALDER and HANCOCK'S NUDIBRANCHIATE MOLLUSCA, with 15 Plates. Vol. I. of DARWIN'S MONOGRAPH of the CIRRIPEDES, with Copperplates.

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"If the suffrages of contemporaries and posthumous history may be accepted as proofs of extraordinary merit, Philip Yorke, first Earl of Hardwicke, may be justly considered a great man. His greatness, indeed, had not the glare of Pitt's reputation; it was rather forensic than parliamentary, and more judicial than either. His gifts were both natural and acquired. He had nearly all the qualities of a

great orator, and nearly every charm of personal demeanour. His manners perhaps would have been more attractive if he could have acquired a little more ease. But a certain degree of stateliness was natural to him. He lived on terms of intimate friendship with his sons, yet he would address them as 'Dear Lord Royston,' and 'Dear Mr. Yorke.' As a judge, his demeanour was perfect. 'When Lord Hardwicke,' said Lord Mansfield,—an admirable critic of eloquence and law,—'pronounced his decrees, Wisdom herself might be supposed to speak.' His appointment to the Great Seal forms an era in our jurisprudence. He resigned it, indeed, in 1756, but he was still regarded as the ministerial leader in the House of Lords. George the Second held Lord Hardwicke in such esteem, that during his frequent absences from England he six times appointed him one of the Lords Justices for administering the affairs of Government. In the cabinet and on the woolsack he was indeed 'a counsellor well fitted to advise.' To the strictest integrity he added consummate knowledge of the law; to his professional experience he brought acquaintance with men and manners, and his skill in foreign politics and international jurisprudence equalled his learning in the statute book. His eloquence was of the grave, deliberative kind. It did not arouse the passions, but it convinced the reason of his audience. His arguments were a chain of demonstrations; his illustrations were enforced by expressive and handsome features, and by dignified and graceful gestures. The moral character of Lord Hardwicke corresponded with his public career; he was temperate and consistent. In the bosom of his family he was as indulgent and estimable as Pitt himself, while to his friends and colleagues he was more equable and trustworthy. His staunch Whig politics did not render him a mere partisan. He gave reasons for his faith, and indeed inclined rather more to the side of Prerogative than was acceptable to some of his political associates. A noble, serene, and deeply learned man, Lord Hardwicke may be regarded as the most able member of the administration which George the Third inherited from his predecessor."

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No whar so besy a man as he thar n'as,
And yet he seemyd besier than he was."

In a letter from the Duke to Lord Hardwicke we have proof how early the King or the favourite had resolved that the sovereign should be "every inch a king."

"October 20th, 1761.

"Lord Bute said, the King has given orders to my Lord Egremont to prepare a letter for my Lord Bristol, expressing His Majesty's desire to correspond with their (the Spaniards) assurance to heal and soften all the depending disputes amicably with each other, 'provided they made it appear to the King that there was nothing offensive contained in the last treaty with Paris.' My Lord Bute said, 'this has been agreed at St. James's, I suppose, between my Lord Egremont and himself; for, notwithstanding the little council of us four, I know nothing of the matter. I found, by his brother, that strong measures and strong declarations are to do everything to prevent the junction of France and Spain. Sure, we have tried these measures long enough.' If one of a council of four knew nothing of the subject, and another acted on 'orders,' the power must have been limited to few.

The summoning a new parliament, says Lord Albemarle, afforded the King an opportunity of violating the spirit of the constitution without departing from the letter.—

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'The Duke of Newcastle to the Earl of Hardwicke.

"January 19th, 1761.

"I am to be with my Lord Bute to-morrow at St. James's whilst the King is at the House. I told his Lordship that I should come to talk to him about the Parliament, and that I had but just got my papers and lists. He said it was high time, and I think (though in very good humour) talked in such a manner that I expect more lists from him than I shall carry to him. He said Lord Falmouth had offered the King three members, but he did not tell me the King's answer.' This liberal offer came from one of the most unblushing borough-mongers of the day. Hugh Boscawen, second Viscount Falmouth. In effrontery of solicitation he was equalled by Bubb Dodington alone, and he lacked the mother-wit which made that effrontery endurable. In George the Second's reign, he told Pitt, at that time minister, that if he had not the garter, which was then vacant, his five members should vote against the government. 'As long,' replied Pitt, 'as I remain in the Cabinet, your Lordship shall not receive that distinction;' then turning to some bystanders, he added 'Optat ephippia Bos.' 'Who calls me Bos?' inquired Falmouth.—'The remark,' replied Pitt, 'is not mine, but Horace's.'—'If Horace Walpole,' exclaimed his Lordship, 'has taken this liberty with my name I shall resent it.'"

The character of Lord Temple as drawn by Lord Albemarle is unfavourable and unjust,—one in which we see the strongest evidence of the traditional influences. Temple was fierce in his opposition to the Rockingham Ministry.—

"Richard, Earl Temple, the elder brother, had good business habits and much industry, and was by no means an inefficient speaker. His huge ungainly figure procured for him the nickname of 'Squire Gawk.' The qualities of his mind were indeed as loosely put together as his limbs. With much

"* Wraxall."

ambition, his own wayward caprice or masterless pride constantly marred his plans at least of self-aggrandisement. He was frequently asking favours of George the Second. That monarch accounted himself at least a Turenne in war; yet his Privy Seal gracefully insinuated that His Majesty had no more spirit than Admiral Byng, whose death-warrant (unjustly, however,) he had just signed."

—This anecdote is generally believed to be substantially true,—but there are two ways of telling the story, and two inferences to be deduced from it. Most persons are now agreed, and Lord Albemarle is not likely to differ from this judgment, that Admiral Byng was judicially murdered. It is very doubtful—if, indeed, there be a doubt—whether the Court were justified in finding him guilty at all,—but it distinctly acquitted him at any rate of the charge of cowardice, and formally protested against the severity of the Articles of War under which the members had felt bound to find him guilty, and "for their own consciences' sake, as well as in justice to the prisoner," they recommended him to mercy. If we mistake not, a majority of the members of the Court went so far as to petition the King in his favour. Mr. Pitt, then minister, declared publicly in the House of Commons that he was for mercy;—he "moved the King," or entreated the King, to extend mercy to the prisoner, but "was cut short" and silenced. The King was resolved that he should be put to death. Lord Temple, however, who had been First Lord of the Admiralty, and by whom probably Byng had been appointed to the command, would not be cut short,—when pleading for the life of an innocent man he would not be silenced. He told His Majesty that all men were liable to errors in judgment, and, in the words of Walpole, "sketched out some parallel between the monarch himself and the admiral, in which the advantage did not lie on the side of the Battle of Oudenarde." This was the occasion on which he forgot or disregarded the "Privy Seal." So much the more to his honour, we say. Had many of his contemporaries been as oblivious, the nation would have been saved from half the disgraces with which the new reign opened.

Though from the first, as we have shown later in our columns in our second notice of the Grenville Papers, George the Third had resolved on peace, and though Bute rejoiced to get rid of Mr. Pitt, and thus, as he hoped, prevent a war with Spain,—he could defer that war only till the proper and the better time was past. What a policy this nation was guided by may be inferred from a few lines in one of Newcastle's letters.—

"Every friend I have dings in my car, that the whole load of our miserable situation will be laid upon me. My Lord Bute complains that I am laying it all upon him; as long as he is the sole dictator, there it ought to lie."

The dictator, however, was no sooner forced to declare war against Spain than he secretly opened negotiations for peace with France. The Sardinian Ambassador was the agent employed; and his services were rewarded—with what else we know not,—but with a pension of a thousand a year on the Irish establishment, granted to him under another name. The notice of this man by Lord Albemarle is just and amusing.—

"The Count de Viri was a native of Savoy; he had been originally a monk. In the reign of George the Second, he was appointed minister to the English Court. Viri had the sagacity to foresee the position Lord Bute would eventually hold, and paid his court to him so effectually, as to gain a complete ascendancy over him; indeed, the love of intrigue and mystery of the wily Savoyard, found a responsive feeling in the breast of the favourite. The conduct of the peace was not the only commission with which Lord Bute charged Viri. It appears by the Hardwicke

Papers, that he had assigned to him the scarcely less difficult task of reconciling the Duke of Newcastle to part with the power, while he retained the title of Minister. His services were amply rewarded. The King granted him a pension of a thousand a year, on the Irish pension list, under the name of Charles, and allowed his son to succeed him at the Court of London. On his return to Sardinia, Viri retired to his estates in Savoy, on the plea of ill health, but in reality, to avoid the Marquis de St. Germain, the Sardinian Minister of Foreign Affairs, who he knew could not endure him. But hearing that the Marquis was ill, he so timed his visit to Turin, as to arrive when his enemy was at the point of death. Viri knew that he was in no good odour at court. He had reason to suspect that the King of Sardinia was aware of the intrigues that he had set on foot, to prolong his stay in England. The day after the death of M. de St. Germain, he appeared before the King and made his peace with His Majesty, by presenting him with a magnificent suit of Gobelin tapestry, which had been given him by Louis the Fifteenth. M. Dutens, the author of 'Memoirs of a Traveller in Retirement,' was at this time Chargé d'Affaires at the Court of Turin, and went frequently to see Viri. He was treated with much apparent confidence by the Count, who seemed anxious to know who was spoken of as the new Foreign Secretary; Dutens telling him that the Count himself was considered the successful candidate: he replied, 'I am tired of business, I have already one foot in the grave, and how could any one be so simple as to imagine that I would now go to mix in the bustle of courts and politics?' This assurance he repeated several times. He was actually at the time the Foreign Secretary. Dutens, on another occasion, applied to Viri on behalf of a friend. Some time after, the Minister sent for him as early as eight o'clock in the morning; and spoke in high terms of his friend, and satisfied him that his request would be granted. Dutens had scarcely got home when he saw his friend, who laughing, told him he knew all that happened. 'Count de Viri,' said he, 'sent for me at seven o'clock; he wished me to witness how much he had my affairs at heart, and made me conceal myself behind a screen, while he was talking to you.' This love of concealment manifested itself in the most trifling concerns. He had once a slight wound on one of his legs, and sent for a surgeon to examine it. A similar accident happening to the other leg, he put that under the care of another surgeon, so that it might not be known he had hurts on both legs at the same time. When Viri died, his secretary said, in answer to an inquirer, 'he is dead, but he does not wish it to be known'; and the King of Sardinia, when he heard of his death said, 'that he would have made a mystery of it if he could.' The negotiations with France were carried on by Count de Viri through the medium of his countryman the Bailli de Solar, the Sardinian Ambassador at Paris. The Bailli had been previously ambassador from his own court to that of Rome, at the same time that Choiseul was ambassador from France. A warm friendship had, since that period, subsisted between them."

Here, then, are the negotiations which ended in the immaculate Peace of Fontainebleau, carried on, in secret, by the intriguing ambassador of a petty State who had acquired "a complete ascendancy" over Lord Bute—or rather who was the creature of Lord Bute,—through another foreign ambassador at Paris, who was the warm friend of the French minister;—yet, we have been told by Lord Brougham, as pointed out at length in the article already referred to as coming later in our columns of to-day, that the idea of bribery on either side is a "revolting absurdity,"—because John, Duke of Bedford was no party to it. Why, the original charge never touched him;—on the contrary, it was stated that the bribery preceded the public negotiations,—that the preliminaries had been agreed on before the Duke of Bedford was sent over,—he being selected because it was known that he had long been earnestly, anxiously, and consistently in favour of peace,—so much so that he was not scrupulous as to the

exact terms. Difficulties and delays, it is true, arose because time brought news of new triumphs and conquest, and the ostensible ministers insisted on compensation for these. Compensation, however, was never obtained; and when the secretaries resolved to repudiate the preliminaries which had been agreed on without their concurrence or approval—Mr. Grenville was superseded and shelved in another department.

We shall have occasion again to refer to these Memoirs:—but when, must depend on the publisher,—as we have received only the first volume, and that not complete.

Women of Christianity, exemplary for Acts of Piety and Charity. By Julia Kavanagh, Author of 'Woman in France,' &c. Smith, Elder & Co.

When noticing Miss Kavanagh's last book we pointed out that the wicked wit of the women of France, which could make an end of an obnoxious minister with a *bon-mot* and give birth to a new system of morals and philosophy at a *petit souper*, demanded for its due record more wickedness, and perhaps more wit, than Miss Kavanagh commands. Thus, it might be inferred that the present theme is in better harmony with her tastes and tone of mind than the former;—and an examination of her new volume bears out the supposition.—The cardinal fault of her 'Women of Christianity' is, that too much has been attempted—too wide a field been taken. Within the short compass of twenty-seven chapters it was possible, indeed, to characterize the spirit of the religious epochs which have succeeded one another in the history of opinion,—but to illustrate them by a complete series of biographies is beyond the power of any *Pennelope*. Pictures comprising such myriads of tiny figures must necessarily become a confused mass of stitches in place of a *Bayeux* roll, where the *Maudes* and the *Margarets*,—the abbess and the martyr maid,—have room "and verge enough," when the web is unrolled, to stand before the eyes of those willing to emulate their virtues,—clear and separate in portraiture. This inevitable difficulty has obviously been felt by Miss Kavanagh as she has proceeded in her task; hence we find omissions and disproportion, in one page a gallery portrait, in another, as it were, merely the letters of a name worked on the background. We are not satisfied, for instance, to read so many pretty stories of Maria Leczinska and so little concerning the remarkable group of Jansenist women who belonged to Port Royal. The controversy in which, as Miss Kavanagh apologetically observes, they were involved was the accident of their position. Their piety and charity were the life-breath of their existence, and nobly sufficient to support them under wreck, outrage and contumely,—as the eloquent and interesting volumes of Mrs. Schimmelpenninck (well known in our religious circles) have long ago shown to the women of England. For ourselves, we could as well dispense with one of the grave and admirable pictures of Philippe de Champaigne in a gallery of religious portraits as reconcile ourselves in a work like this to the absence of the earnest, learned and superstitious but self-sacrificing enthusiasts in question.—It has been, further, inevitable that where Miss Kavanagh has found a characteristic biography, as in the cases of Saint Elizabeth, Mrs. Godolphin and Mrs. Fry, she should have become diffuse and anecdotal; but we should have liked to see more traces of her having studied the records of Dissent and of missionary enterprise. Without our accrediting the sagacity and the zeal of those concerned, the

annals of female piety and charity cannot be said to be complete without specimens from both classes, which have been slighted by our authoress possibly not so much because they lie beyond the pale of the general reader, as because of the bad taste and exaggeration of what may be called our sectarian chronicles. The emphasis of the above exception is strengthened by our finding a chapter in this brief compendium devoted to the Montyon prizeholders:—whose stage rewards, according to the conditions of the theatrical institution in the books of which they figure, might have been considered as absolving the authoress from any minute specification in a work which, it is fair to presume, has been undertaken with motives higher than those of mere literary speculation.

We can commend Miss Kavanagh for the general ease, propriety and care with which her task has been executed. The manner in which the authoresses of England have, in almost every branch of *belles lettres* and imagination, devoted themselves to the service of their own sex, claims statement as a literary fact. Ranging from the 'Records' of Mrs. Hemans to Lady Morgan's more profound and philosophical 'Woman and her Master,'—from Mrs. Jameson's Shakspeare fancies to Mrs. Napier's sound but not cold-hearted didactic truths,—the amount of generous and wholesome effort thus disclosed is sufficient, in variety of scope and in success, to silence the most cynical of misogynists,—unless he be henceforward prepared to accept the imputation of being unjust as well as cynical.

Pictures of Life in Mexico. By R. H. Mason. With Illustrations by the Author. 2 vols. Smith, Elder & Co.

Mr. Mason is essentially a picture-maker. His pencil possesses something of fluency and grace,—of descriptive facility and graphic though monotonous characterization. His pen is an instrument of the same quality. It delights in pose and costume,—in the portraiture of moving incidents, adventures, and escapes. A dirty padre, a fierce ladrone, a joyous señorita, a gaily dressed cavalier, is sure to seize his eye and inspire a "picture" or suggest a tale. We learn from Mr. Mason that he visited Mexico in 1848-9, and that he was in a position—he does not say what—to see and learn much in outlying places that other tourists have passed without observation. He boasts also that he has not referred to other works on Mexico—except for his statistics. The latter assertion may be true,—the more's the pity. Had he just looked into some of his predecessors, Mr. Mason might have been induced to leave out not a few of his often-told tales, descriptions worn to death, and platitudes as old as travelling in Mexico.—We could very well have spared from such a book as this all the statistics and commercial information. These things are not only out of place in a book of pictures, but our etcher and sketcher has evidently no vocation to deal with such matters,—no power to seize their points of interest or to grapple with their philosophy. In the pictorial he is more at home.

Mr. Mason is so far a true story-teller that he loves to frame his recitals according to the fashion of the country in which the scene is laid;—believing that by doing so—giving to each incident its own accessories—the realities of Mexican life can be most vividly conjured up before the mind's eye. Thus he relates a characteristic anecdote.—

"Pardon me, Señor," exclaimed my attendant, laughing, as he once entered my apartment, 'but there has been a very strange scene in the fonda to-night! A poor Indian, the picture of starvation, with hollow cheeks, skinny arms, and eyes almost

starting from their sockets, came to the door, and with hands uplifted, implored us in this manner:—"For the love of God! Señores—for the sake of the blessed Virgin! as you hope never to come to my state yourselves—pity me and relieve me! Is there not a morsel of tortilla? nor the least portion of chile? Not a scrap of dried flesh? nor a cup of cold stew for a poor Indian? For the love of the blessed Virgin, relieve a starving Indian!" Now, as it happened, there was no one in the fonda at the moment but a poor arriero (a common carrier), the cooks, the waiter, myself, and Perata—the priest's servant, who resides at the upper end of the street. This last—a malicious fellow—had a huge platter of stewed mutton before him which he was eyeing greedily; and perceiving that José, the head cook, was about to throw a bit of tortilla towards the Indian, he waved his hand between them, shouting,—“How is it that a thief like you dare to show his face within the fonda? As to your being hungry—pah! I don't believe a word of it.”—"I am starving. Ah! Señores, pity me! I have not tasted food for three days' space! I would thrust my hand into the blazing fire for a tortilla cake!"—"Oh! you lying dog!" replied Perata, "you would thrust your hand into the fire, would you? Look ye, Señor Starvation, let me see you place your hand in the flame beneath that furnace, and I will give you the delicious meal here before me. But if not, vanish: take yourself away quickly; do you hear?"—The Indian advanced to the charcoal fire, stooped down, placed his hand over the flame, and uttered a loud scream of pain. "Now," he said, "my supper is fairly earned."—"Not fair! not fair!" shouted Perata, who never meant to make good his offer. "He did not touch the fire: I must see it fairly done."—Again the poor fellow stooped before the stove; and all eyes were turned upon him searchingly. He thrust his hand into the flame, and held it there for a moment: the pain seemed to produce a faintness; and with deep groans of agony he fell helplessly to the ground. We all, excepting Perata, repented that the frolic had been carried so far, and gathered about him in concern. Raising himself upon one elbow after a short time, he motioned us aside that he might have more air; we drew off a little from him, and in a moment he started to his feet, rushed round the table, to the place where the yet untasted platter of stew was standing with two tortilla cakes beside it, seized greedily upon them all, and darted swiftly in the direction of the door. One of the cooks hastily snatched up an iron ladle, and hurled it after the crafty delinquent, upsetting the priest's servant in the act, as well as a dish of boiling chile on the top of the furnace; and there lay Perata struggling and screeching on the ground, with the scalding-hot mixture pouring down over his head and neck. "Santisima Virgen! yo ho! Santísima Virgen!" yelled the scalded wretch, as he placed his hands upon the parts affected.—"Santisima Virgen!" exclaimed the cook, as the ladle, missing its aim, shattered to pieces the only entire pane of glass of which the fonda had been able to boast for many a day.—"Santisima Virgen!" cried the waiter, as he saw the viands vanish, and the fragments flying about.—"Santisima Virgen!" echoed the Indian, with a grin of triumph; pausing for a moment at the door, before decamping with his strangely-gotten repast.—And so, Señor, that Perata came in for the worst part of the adventure, after all."

The story which follows is a more formal specimen of the author's picture-making,—but the morals as well as the incidents are purely Mexican-types of a land of ignorant padres and lazy ladrones.—

"During the troublous and sanguinary times that preceded the first Congress of the republic in 1825, it was judged expedient by the authorities of a distant provincial cathedral, that the gold and silver utensils and ornaments, with the precious stones and other costly moveables, should be removed, for greater safety, to another church in the interior of the country. To this end, boxes and hampers, with false slides and secret contrivances, were made; so that, in the event of their capture or examination by robbers, the most valuable articles might remain undiscovered. The treasures were packed with the utmost care and secrecy; and much deliberation was exercised in the choice of an escort to accompany

the precious cargo. At length it was decided that one Tezarin—a worthy disciple of the church, who had been employed to command an escort under government—and his band, with several holy brethren from the cathedral, should be entrusted with the duty. The caravan set out in due time upon their journey, with the utmost caution and privacy: the treasure being disguised under the appearance of a common bale of merchandise; and its guardians wearing the semblance of merchants with their escort. They proceeded for a considerable distance in security; but on the evening of the second day of their journey, much to their surprise, the party were assailed by a determined band of ladrones; they were disarmed, and their luggage was carefully examined. Not content with merely surveying the packages, however, the robbers, as if by a strange instinct, broke the boxes to pieces, and thus the hidden gems and most costly vessels were exposed to view. Everything was ruthlessly carried away; the prisoners were left behind, bound hand and foot, and the robbers made good their escape, leaving no traces whatever of their flight. For a long period, the secret of this daring and successful sacrilege continued an impenetrable mystery. The chagrined priests left no method untried for the discovery of the plunderers and their booty, and to learn how their secret expedition had transpired (for it was evident that the thieves had been supplied with previous information), but all their efforts and inquiries were entirely unavailing. At length the immaculate Tezarin himself was apprehended, and condemned upon a charge of theft and conspiracy; and while under sentence of death for these misdemeanours, he confessed, among other revelations, that the unaccountable robbery of the treasures of the church just recorded had been executed under his own direction. He admitted that the time and place of the occurrence had been planned by him; though he had submitted, for obvious reasons, to be bound as a prisoner with the rest. He also gave such information as led to the apprehension and execution of his accomplices. The punishment of Tezarin was mitigated; and the principal treasures of the cathedral were, by his agency, recovered: but their history does not end here. Although the jewels and golden vessels were restored to their old places in the cathedral, outbreaks and disturbances in its neighbourhood were of frequent occurrence. The hearts of the holy fathers were once more filled with doubts and fears; and so bitterly had they earned the experience of the past, that they had scarcely now the confidence to trust one another. While affairs were in this situation, news came that a church at no great distance from their own had been entered and plundered of its richest treasures, and that a series of such robberies was to be apprehended. This report, which they had every reason to fear was but too correct, had the effect of greatly increasing the consternation of the priests. The superior ecclesiastic and two of his favourites, had come to the determination, without the knowledge of their brethren, that a subterranean vault should be formed under a particular part of the cathedral; where, in time of need, the most valuable of the church's possessions might be deposited. With much ingenuity the desired receptacle was stealthily completed, and the entrance preserved a profound secret among the worthy trio. They had decided that the only means of access should be by a trap-door from above, closed with an invisible spring,—and the trap-door was cunningly fixed, and the imperceptible spring duly set, accordingly. The disturbances in the vicinity increased. Insurrection followed insurrection; outrage succeeded outrage; pillage appeared to become the order of the day. Neither life nor property was held sacred; and the cathedral itself was threatened with an invasion. 'We must watch vigilantly and incessantly, from night to morning, each in his turn,' exclaimed the affrighted dignitary to his companions; 'for we know not at what hour the pence of our Zion may be threatened by these sacrilegious depredators.' And watch they did, night and morning, in parties; in obedience to the orders of their chief. * * At length, at a late hour, one stormy night, when the three ecclesiastics—to whom alone the secret of the vault was known—happened to be on the watch together, a sound as of a thronging multitude arose in the distance; which, as it drew nearer, was heard above the

howling of the wind and the falling of the rain. The tramp of heavy footsteps approached the cathedral; shouts and vociferous cries burst forth on every side; the red glare of innumerable torches shone through the emblazoned windows. At the first alarm, the trio of monks proceeded to carry the portable boxes containing their choicest treasures into the vault below; and by the time the building was surrounded, they had concealed the whole. Meantime, a series of thundering knocks assailed the door, which it was evident must soon give way beneath the repeated strokes: the massive bolts were forced, the hinges torn away, and an entrance effected. Just as the band of depredators rushed madly through the opening, the shaven head of the last of the three priests disappeared below the entrance of the vault; the trap-door was hastily closed, and the spring was made secure. But this movement had not escaped the searching eye of a lépero in the crowd. The cathedral was thoroughly ransacked; many valuable articles were broken to pieces, and the fragments were passed from hand to hand; but a murmur of disappointment arose, ere long, that so few available treasures were to be discovered. The idea of a subterranean concealment at once flashed upon the minds of the robbers, and the supposition was confirmed by the lépero who had seen the closing trap-door. They immediately tried every crevice and broken stone, and bent violently on the floor with hammers and axes; but so well had the opening been concealed, that they were compelled to abandon the attempt in despair. Venting their disappointment upon the building, they demolished several of the painted windows, and carried off the choicest of the ornaments; and it was a miracle that the edifice escaped conflagration at their hands. The beating upon the floor, however, had broken the spring of the trap-door, the holy fathers' only avenue of escape; and when, on the disappearance of the invading crowd, they attempted to emerge, they found themselves, in spite of every effort, hopelessly immured in a dungeon that must soon prove their living sepulchre! The remains of the three monks were only discovered—fast beside the treasures which in life they had loved so well—when the marble floor was taken up by some workmen who were engaged in the restoration of the dilapidated and desecrated cathedral."

Of course, there are frequent references in these volumes to the revolution which set the Spanish colonies free from the oppressive yoke of Spain—the "heroic age" of Mexico,—to the long reign of Santa Anna,—and to the influence of the war with America on the national habits and course of thought. The account of what our author heard of the reports spread by the "good padres" of the inhuman ugliness and savagery of the Americans, when their armies were advancing into the country, is quite ludicrous. The Huns were not painted in more terrible colours in the villas of Italy than were the followers of "Rough and Ready" in the haciendas of Mexico. But these strange terrors vanished with better acquaintance. The Americans carried with them into Mexico several printing presses,—they established cafés in the towns through which they passed,—they tried to regulate the gambling-houses,—and they introduced the cutlery of Sheffield and the cottons of Lowell and Manchester, without those high duties which in ordinary times more than quintuple the market value of these articles. Mr. Mason assures us that their short occupation of the capital has had a great moral result. American manufactures have become popular. The shopkeepers have adopted American methods of dealing. The European costume is gradually growing into fashion. We are further informed that—

"Many young ladies, also, of the better class, seem to delight in lisping forth a few broken American words, on particular occasions; pronouncing the English vowels with all the fulness peculiar to their own magnificent language; and making a most incongruous jumble of the whole affair. Many articles of established reputation under old Spanish

names, with a few others of novel construction, now astonish their possessors by their new American appellations. Not a few conventional phrases and expressions, also, may be traced far northwards; and, upon the whole, an heretical traveller from Europe or the States, encounters far more forbearance, and is thought less monstrous, at the present time, than might have been the case before the period of the war."

Not the least beneficial result of the American occupation of Mexico was, the overthrow and expulsion of Santa Anna. To the current anecdotes illustrative of the rule of this lawless chieftain, the following may be added from these sketches.—

"In one of the last years of Santa Anna's power, an English merchant and traveller, about to quit Mexico, having some very valuable goods in his possession, and being aware of the unsettled state of the country, desired a private audience of the President, in order to solicit his advice and protection. An interview was granted, and the merchant had, as he thought, the good fortune to communicate his position and wishes to the President in confidence—no one being present but Santa Anna and his secretary. The President received him most graciously, and condescended to caution him emphatically against making his journey known, or communicating to any one the secret of his wealth; further advising him to secure his treasure in secret boxes, and proposing to provide him, as an English merchant whom he highly respected, with an escort of his own trusty soldiers. The escort was duly provided, and the English merchant soon began his journey. He had not proceeded far, however, before his guards fled, at sight of a band of heavily-armed men with blackened faces, who seized upon his goods, and, quickly discovering the secret boxes and slides, despoiled him of all his treasure, and decamped. The plundered merchant complained to the President of the treatment he had received, and many protestations of indignation and sympathy were made in reply; nevertheless, he had shortly ample reason to believe that the whole affair had been covertly planned by President Santa Anna himself: that the robbery had been executed under his private orders, and that the proceeds had been devoted to the enrichment of the President's treasury."

Without being clever, these 'Pictures of Life in Mexico' constitute an amusing book. It contains, for those who seek it, some miscellaneous information about Mexico,—and a more skilful arrangement of the materials here huddled together would have made it equally useful and entertaining.

An Account of the Danes and Norwegians in England, Scotland, and Ireland. By J. J. A. Worsaae. Murray.

THE title of this book scarcely expresses the precise nature of its contents; since it relates to the visits and settlements of the Danes and Norwegians in the three portions of British empire eight hundred years ago,—not, as some might suppose from its terms, to the present residence of many of them amongst us. Those who are aware of Mr. Worsaae's reputation as an antiquary and ethnologist run no risk of making the mistake; but others, not so instructed, might be led to take up the volume under the notion that it was something very different from what it is.—Regarding his design and purpose, the author speaks thus clearly at the close of his "Introduction."

"It is the object of the following pages to convey, partly in the form of travelling impressions, a picture of the memorials of the Danes and Norwegians, as they exist in the monuments and among the people of those countries which in former times most frequently witnessed the victories of the Danes and Normans—namely, the British Islands. It is, however, by no means the exclusive, or even special, design of them, to present to scholars and persons of science detailed and critical observations on every individual ancient monument in those islands, which

may be said to be of Danish or Norwegian origin. Their aim rather is to describe the more general, and consequently more appreciable, features of actually existing Scandinavian monuments; in doing which a distinction will, as far as possible, be drawn between the Danish and the Norwegian memorials; and in general between the influence of the Danes in England, and of the Norwegians in Scotland and Ireland."

This, like all the rest, is as distinct as it can be rendered; and the work before us is not so remarkable—notwithstanding what is said to the contrary—for the novelty of its views as for the perspicuity with which they are stated. Mr. Worsaae may here and there maintain questionable positions,—but there is nothing questionable in his mode of supporting them. Not only he aims at nothing like mysticism but he seems studiously to avoid all imputation of the kind, and to entertain a natural contempt for such as, not understanding themselves, write with affected vagueness, as if they wished others to discover a meaning for them and impute to them thoughts far above the comprehension of their inferior faculties. Such has been the case with several Continental scribblers,—to say nothing of our own. But the writer of this 'Account of the Danes and Norwegians' is a man of learning in his own department, and a man of great acuteness and intelligence and of varied acquisitions. One of these last is, a more accurate knowledge of the English language than is possessed by many of those who have the freest and most familiar use of it.

We do not say that foreignisms (so to speak) are not here and there to be detected as regards even the language:—the main foreignism, however, is in the general object of the work, and in the manner in which that object has been carried out. Mr. Worsaae is a good Dane:—national to the backbone. He lauds his country and his countrymen on all occasions,—glories in their early triumphs in Britain,—and conceals their defeats and defects in a way that sometimes is scarcely consistent with our better knowledge. Thus, in no fewer than four different places—pp. xx, 24, 177, 186—he adverts to the naval proceedings of Great Britain against Denmark in 1801 and 1807, and cannot bring himself to the conviction—or at all events, to the admission,—that Nelson gained a victory at Copenhagen at all. On laying down the volume, we almost felt as if it had been the deliberate intention of the author to pay off old scores,—by showing how we had formerly been harried and subjugated by the Danes, as a compensation and a counterpoise to our claims for modern achievements.

This sentiment of nationality takes even amusing forms. According to the authority before us the Danish name has not lost its terror amongst us even at the present day. In some parts of the empire, after the lapse of so many centuries, the memory of the inflictions wrought by the Vikings of Denmark and Norway is, we are told, so vivid that the author's appearance there produced fresh terrors of northern invasions. Mr. Worsaae says—

"Having employed myself in examining, among other things, the many so-called 'Danish' or Pictish towers on the west and south-west coast of Sutherland, the common people were led to believe that the Danes wished to regain possession of the country, and with that view intended to rebuild the ruined castles on the coasts. The report spread very rapidly, and was soon magnified into the news that the Danish fleet was lying outside the sunken rocks near the shore, and that I was merely sent beforehand to survey the country round about; nay, that I was actually the Danish King's son himself, and had secretly landed. This report, which preceded me very rapidly, had, among other effects, that of making the poorer classes avoid, with the greatest care, mentioning any traditions connected with defeats of the Danes, and especially with the killing of any

Dane in the district, lest they should occasion a sanguinary vengeance when the Danish army landed. Their fears were carried so far that my guide was often stopped by the natives, who earnestly requested him in Gaelic not to lend a helping hand to the enemies of his country by showing them the way; nor would they let him go till he distinctly assured them that I was in possession of maps correctly indicating old castles in the district which he himself had not previously known. This, of course, did not contribute to allay their fears; and it is literally true, that in several of the Gaelic villages, particularly near the firths of Loch Inver and Kyle-Sku, we saw on our departure old folks wring their hands in despair at the thought of the terrible misfortunes which the Danes would now bring on their hitherto peaceful country."

We do not happen to have visited the portion of the Scottish Highlands in this extract referred to of late years:—but from this distance we venture to entertain great doubts as to the terror of a new Danish descent, and distrust of the protection of the British Government, ascribed to the inhabitants. Mr. Worsaae found the same traditional Dano-phobia in the west of Ireland.—

"Tales [he says] calculated to awaken horror of outrages of the Danes are connected with all these pretended Danish memorials; and the further we travel into the remote western districts, the more terrible are the tales we hear of the distress and cruel oppressions which the inhabitants endured under their Danish conquerors. Nevertheless the Irishman has preserved, like the Englishman, the remembrance of the Danes' contempt of death, and irresistible bravery. 'That might even frighten a Dane,' says the Irishman at times when speaking of some desperate undertaking. 'A kind of superstitious fear of the redoubted Danes seems in some places to have seized the common people; at least it is an acknowledged fact, that in several parts of the country they continue to frighten children with 'the Danes.'"

We dare say the author believes what he has here written,—and we have little doubt that it will be gratifying to the nationality of the Danes, among whom and for whom especially his book has been prepared; but the fact is, he seems to have mistaken mere legends and traditions for living terrors,—and to suppose that the words employed to frighten babes express the fears of men. The Irish have too fresh and acute a recollection of their sufferings from the Saxon during the last few centuries not to have expelled all fanciful figures of the threatening Dane; and whatever effect Mr. Worsaae may fancy that his awful appearance produced on some poor old Irish woman, we have doubts if there are not a good many of her countrymen who would be much more ready to welcome a Danish invasion than to repel it.—By the way, this subject recalls to our mind a long discussion introduced by the author regarding the late Mr. O'Connell and his repeal agitation;—which discussion is by no means apropos. Mr. Worsaae has waded considerably out of his depth,—and he has, of course, contributed nothing to our previous knowledge. When we admire him, it is because he brings important historical or antiquarian facts to our notice.

Of matter of this valuable kind there is much in the volume in our hands:—though all through, we trace the Dane, with his love and admiration of his own soil and its people, endeavouring to make out a case for establishing their importance and invincibility. It is somewhat singular to find him in one page speaking of the terror struck into the natives of this country by the savage incursions of the Danes, who destroyed all by fire and sword,—and in the next dwelling on the internal benefits which these exterminators conferred on Britain.—According to Mr. Worsaae, there are few of our

valuable institutions for which we are not indebted to his countrymen; and although it has been a question much disputed by the learned, whether the Trial by Jury was in existence before the Conquest, and although many authorities—from Spelman to Hallam—might be quoted to prove both sides,—Mr. Worsaae settles the point summarily in favour of his Scandinavian ancestors. He admits that the trial by jury was "established throughout England" by the Normans; but he does not forget to tell us that these Normans were themselves Danes and Norwegians,—that it was an institution well known among them long before,—and that they imported it into this country in places where they made a settlement. We own that, with all our respect for our author's learning, we should like to have seen him quote, or at all events refer to, some authorities on the point:—and we may take this opportunity of stating, that in this particular his production is generally defective. It is true, that he now and then puts a previous author's mere name within brackets,—as *Monro, Thorpe, Hibbert, &c.*—but he very rarely tells us which of their works he alludes to, and in no instance, that we can call to mind does he furnish us with the volume or the page. While we feel, therefore, great confidence that Mr. Worsaae is not seeking to mislead us, we should have preferred to have had the opportunity of sometimes testing his accuracy for ourselves. It is most probable that he entertains a whole-some dislike of the ostentation of that learning for which all who know him give him credit; but, on the other hand, on such as are not so well acquainted with his claims a few foot-notes would not have been thrown away.

The following is an interesting passage on an important point;—which we quote the more readily because it falls exactly within the writer's peculiar knowledge, and does not require the sort of confirmation to which we have above alluded.—

"Before the passage to the East Indies by sea was discovered, and particularly before the Genoese and Venetians began to trade in the Black Sea and on the coasts of Asia, the main road from Arabia and the countries round the Caspian Sea to the Baltic and Scandinavia lay through Russia, along the great rivers. To judge from the Oriental coins found both in Russia and in Scandinavian countries, this commercial road must have been used from the eighth until far in the eleventh century, when it was broken up by internal disturbances in Asia, and by contemporary revolutions in Russia and the North. The road ran either from Transoxania (in Turan) to the countries north of the Caspian Sea, whence the merchandise was then brought along the river Volga to the Baltic; or else from Khorsan (in Iran), through Armenia, to the Black Sea; whence the Khazars and other people again conveyed it up the rivers farther towards the North. How considerable this trade must have been may be seen from the numerous hints in the Sagas, as well as from the still-existing Arabian accounts of merchants who in those days visited the coasts of the Baltic for the sake of trade, where considerable trading places, such as Sleswick and many others, are mentioned; but still more than all these, from the very great number of Arabian coins that have been dug up both in Russia and Scandinavia. In Sweden, and particularly in the island of Gothland, such an immense quantity of these has been found at various times, that in Stockholm alone above twenty thousand pieces have been preserved, presenting more than a thousand different dies, and coined in about seventy towns in the eastern and northern districts of the dominions of the Caliphs. Five-sixths of them were coined by Samanidic Caliphs. Together with the coins, a great mass of ornaments has been dug up, consisting of rings and other articles in silver, which are distinguished by a peculiar workmanship. On the whole, it appears that silver first came by this way into the North, where it was not generally circulated before the ninth

and tenth centuries, and consequently at the time when the trade with Arabia was in full activity."

There is one point of a philological kind on which we would venture a remark;—and we do it with diffidence, because we are well aware of Mr. Worsaae's attainments in this department. Much of what he advances to prove the power and influence, especially of the Danes, in this country anterior to the Norman Conquest, depends upon certain real or supposed resemblances in the names of places and things in Denmark and in England, Scotland and Ireland;—but he seems to forget, while denying or depreciating the claims of our Anglo-Saxon forefathers, that their language and the Danish had many points of resemblance and to a certain extent had a common origin. Therefore, if we find a word—like *laken*, for instance—in the three languages,—surely it is as probable that we obtained it from the Saxons as from the Danes. In one or two places, Mr. Worsaae's anxiety to prove our obligations to his country carries him to rather a ludicrous extreme:—for example, he speaks of Denmark Street in London as if it had been so called for the last eight or nine hundred years,—when it obtained its name at the earliest from Anne, the wife of James the First.

These, however, are trifles, and detract very little from the substantial merits of Mr. Worsaae's book. This may, in truth, be looked on as a great achievement, when we recollect the manner in which the information that it comprises was procured, and the short time during which the author was employed in accumulating his materials. It occupied him only a year to travel over the three kingdoms;—a circumstance the more noticeable when we bear in mind that Mr. Worsaae was sent amongst us under the authority of a royal Commission from the King of Denmark,—and that the amount of his pay depended on the time during which he should be occupied in his investigations. In this country, undertakings of the kind generally end—if they do not begin—in discreditably jobs. The work is too often protracted for the sake of the pay; and we should like to know, if an Englishman were now appointed at a salary of 500*l.* a year to make similar inquiries in Denmark and Norway, how many years would elapse before he would complete a production of the bulk—to say nothing of the quality—and appearance of this by Mr. Worsaae? We suspect that more money would be spent by our Government on archaeological and scientific pursuits, if a persuasion could once be produced in the proper quarter that it would be fairly and honestly earned. Anticipated misapplication is sometimes, we fear, the argument for ministerial parsimony.

The Jerusalem Delivered of Torquato Tasso.

Translated in the Metre of the Original. By the Rev. Charles Lessingham Smith. Longman & Co.

"THERE seems"—says Mr. Smith's preface—"to be an opinion now very generally prevailing that a translation, to arrive at the greatest attainable degree of perfection, should assume as nearly as possible the form of its original." This "opinion" we may affirm has prevailed at all times blest by a lively poetic sense, whether born of natural instinct or produced by cultivation. The period when "the old heroic couplet" was "regarded as the sole garb in which a foreign poet could be decently presented to the English public," was the winter of our literature; in which, while the examples of Dryden and Pope were easily followed on their worse sides, the strength and accuracy of language which redeemed their pompous manner were little observed.

Nor can these, Dryden especially, be quoted in vindication of that exclusive use of heroic metre for all versions whatsoever, to which we owe so many travesties of foreign poets. There were reasons for applying it to the ancient hexameter, which had no force, for instance, in regard to the stanzas and terzines of Italian;—while the latter, imbued with the complexion common to all modern rhythmic verse as distinguished from the old prosodic forms, had a right to the equivalents found in every native language of Europe,—which in the case of Latin and Greek could not be pleaded. The evasion of this demand could be allowed only in days when poetry, exhausted of its vital spirit, had become a thing of form and artifice,—when nature was expected to clothe herself in a court dress, and all airs that did not follow a perverse tune were deemed barbarous. It is something like a waste of time to justify our departure from the vicious modes of the last century.

Nor is it necessary for Mr. Smith to say one word as to the power of the English, in competent hands, to follow the poets of other languages in a becoming manner,—to imitate Tasso, for example, with something of his proper style and cadence. The stanzas which Spenser has borrowed in 'The Fairy Queen' would have been proof enough for those who sought an example, were not the 'Godfrey' of Fairfax extant, proving how boldly and gracefully the Italian will move in an English costume nearly corresponding to his own. The want, in fact, here, as in all cases where the object is poetry of the higher order, is of kindred power in the translator who undertakes the task. To render due justice to foreign genius the interpreter must himself have genius.

For this reason the number of even tolerable versions will always be limited. The mere rhymester, though he may preserve a literal meaning, neither lives in the life of the original, nor has he power enough over his own language to mould it into a kindred being. The full-grown poet, on the other hand, will seldom submit with absolute fidelity to his original. His own fancy is kindled as he bends over its beauties, and bursts into flashes which lure him from the strict line of his office. He will often improve, but oftener pervert, the original, especially if it be of the highest class:—because in all works of genius there is a certain organic completeness,—an individual mode of being,—which once created rejects every foreign element, however choice. Thus qualities essential to success on the one hand are apt on the other to lead the interpreter astray. The union of endowments high enough to place him on the level of his author, with a self-control superior to all temptations to rival or eclipse him, is a combination so rare that it is no wonder if there are few good copies of the greater poets. But of those which fall more or less short of perfection, there can be no question which to prefer. The work of the poet, with all its licences or omissions, will give more of the essence of the original than the closest literal rendering by a versifier deficient in the "vivid power of mind" by which alone genius can be reflected in a new element.

Of the two kinds of translation, neither completely representing the foreign poet, it would be difficult to find better examples than in Fairfax's 'Godfrey,' and the 'Jerusalem Delivered' as now produced by Mr. Smith. That Edward Fairfax, in the dawn of our best age, was born a poet little inferior in stature to Tasso himself, no sensitive reader of his work can fail to perceive. His genius, indeed, was less tender than the Italian's; the English of his early day, though grown to its full strength, had not yet gained consummate elegance,—while Tasso, on the contrary, marks a stage in Tuscan poetry at

which it had already lost some of its force in the perfection of a fluency and sweetness that have never been surpassed. Fairfax, again, was not free from some vices of taste, common to all the poets of Elizabeth's age, which Tasso was too highly cultivated to affect. But with all differences and disadvantages allowed, his translation is to this day one of the best we have of any poet. It fulfils to a high degree the prime condition, that the copy of a fine original should itself be a fine picture. When Fairfax fails, it is not for want of power to do better service to his author,—it is because he will not check his own vein, but prefers its fancies and turns to Tasso's. Where he deviates absolutely from the text, he sometimes goes far beyond his original, oftener spoils him by conceits and figures, either bad in themselves or unfit for the place they occupy. But on most important occasions he either keeps close to the very text, rendering it with surprising fire and fluency, or he does what in such cases may be admitted as an equivalent,—by virtually reproducing the life of his original, while he presents it in forms of his own. The reader of Fairfax's Tasso who bests knows the poet in his native language will be the least apt to complain of such liberties. He perceives that Fairfax could have often given a stricter version had he been able to curb his own fancy,—he may feel in the turns of a style as yet unsettled something rough or homely which wrongs the delicious music of the 'Gerusalemme,' though, considering the date of the translation, its ease and melody are, on the whole, remarkable. At times, he will be fretted by the bad taste which substitutes flourishes or quips of wit, not too pleasing in themselves, for the simple graces of the original. But, on the whole, and especially in the places where Tasso soars the highest, he will find that Fairfax follows him with no unequal flight,—that, in short, as a whole, his translation, itself a noble poem, is truly a fine, though a free, copy of the noble original.

Mr. Smith studies a closer imitation; and in literal adherence to the text has usually kept as near the Italian as is perhaps possible under the conditions of an octave stanza. This merit may be truly conceded; the exceptions of omission or misreading are not many, and seldom appear as if caused by difficulties of rhyme,—so that they may fairly be set down as errata. His numbers, too, are not ungraceful; and his command of English, which must be pretty well tried in the attempt to repeat the very words of Tasso in his own metre in a less tractable idiom, may be termed considerable. Some blemishes in this department—as, for instance, the constant use of the word "grand" for "great" where uncalled for by the necessities of rhyme—seem to be caused by want of taste rather than want of words. On the whole, it must be said that Mr. Smith has a clear view of his author's meaning, and repeats it with a precision seldom relaxed and a dexterity rarely quite at fault. The literal part of his task is probably as well accomplished as the nature of its conception admitted. The spirit, however, has not been preserved in equal degree with the letter of the Italian text.

It may be said once for all that, where idioms differ, the transfer, both of literal form and of poetic substance, is impracticable. An incompatibility is implied in the terms of the proposal. Given, on the one hand, two dissimilar modes of speech,—and, on the other, that speciality in the use of one by the first poet which is the stamp of his calling,—it must result that whatever is most peculiar in his language will be identified with his work in its liveliest portions, and will also be the least tractable in another, so far as a literal transfer is concerned. The idea of fide-

lity being insured by exchanging word for word in any kind of composition, indeed, rests on but a shallow idea of the properties of human speech. It is the readiest, but by no means the most certain, way in whatever exceeds the measure of those ordinary forms of expression that a common want makes pretty nearly alike in all countries. It will by no means reach the desired end in poetry; its choicest utterances are all idiomatic, and these can be represented only by equivalents in another tongue, which are rarely identical. — Nay, even where the exchange appears possible on equal terms, it will often be found by a nice observer that the translation is incomplete; that a more seemingly distant symbol would in fact have come nearer to the value required to be given. But these relations must be discovered by something of a kindred sense. They cannot be suggested by dictionary helps. They are often overlooked by very diligent translators like Mr. Smith.

It will, indeed, be found with him that, in striving to retain the express dictionary words, the character, the essential form of the poet, has not unfrequently eluded his grasp. A want of animation flattens the tone of his performance generally. Intent on repeating all that is expressly said in his original, he is apt to forget the melodious numbers—in which Tasso so much excelled, that it is impossible to recognize him at all in stumbling monosyllabic lines. Above all, a certain falling off, at the critical moment, is apt to be felt in the great scenes of the poem, where the distance between the original and the copy is at once the most apparent and the least acceptable. Mr. Smith will be most admired in the lower passages. One of these will serve, as a fair specimen of very creditable workmanship. It is taken from the introduction in Canto xvii., of the march of the Egyptian host from Gaza.—

Oh Muse, recall to me that vanish'd hour,
And bring that state of things before mine eyes,
What arms had the grand Emperor, what pow'r,
What nations of his own, and what allies,
When from the South and utmost East the flow'r
Of forces and of kings join'd his empire:
The troops and chiefs, and half the world inroll'd
In banner'd arms, thou only canst unfold.
When Egypt had shak'n off th' imperial claim
Of Greece and left our creed to adopt its own,
A warrior sprung from Mahomet's blood became
His sov'reign lord, and founded there his throne.
He was call'd Caliph, and by the same name
All who succeeded to his pow'r were known.
So Nile beheld in lengthen'd order rise
Her Pharaohs first, and then her Ptolemies.
As years roll'd on, the state thus wisely plan'd
Was establish'd, and so grew that it spread o'er
Agi and Libya, from Cyrene's land
And Marmarique far as the Syrian shore;
And stretch'd beyond Syene 'gainst the grand
And trackless course down which Nile's waters pour;
Thence to Sabana's wide unpeopled plains,
And onward to where vast Euphrates drains.
Upon the right and left it comprehends
The rich sea and the spicy coasts around;
And past the Erythrean far extends
Tow'rd where at diew morn the sun is found.
Grand forces in itself the empire blends,
And he who rules it makes them more renown'd;
Supreme by blood, but still more by desert,
In regal and in warlike arts expert.
Oft with the Turks, oft with the Persian state
This monarch war'd; provok'd, and crush'd their pride;
Now lost, now won; and still in adverse fate
Greater than e'en in vict'ry was descried.
When pressing age could bear no more the weight
Of arms he loos'd the sabre from his side;
Yet pass'd his warlike genius not away,
Nor his vast thirst for honor and for sway.
Still wars he, seated in his capital,
And in his mind and speech such strength appears,
That all the cares of monarchy seem to fall
An easy burden on his vigorous years.
Africa scatter'd into kingdoms small
Dreads his great name, and distant Ind reveres;
Some yield him voluntary troops inroll'd
From martial tribes, some tributary gold.

This is neatly and closely rendered: the translator appears to less advantage in those parts of the poem to which every admirer of Tasso will first turn. Nor is he always at such

times sufficiently careful, even, of the literal meaning; and sometimes deviates where to quit the text impairs the very life of the poet. We turn, for instance, to the exquisite picture, in Canto six, where Erminia finds Tancred in a swoon, after his combat with Argante. Thus it stands in Mr. Smith's version:—

To gaze on the fierce knight whose limbs were clad
In foreign arms, the luckless one had stay'd,
When by that cry so sudden and so sad
Her heart was pierc'd as by a poignant blade.
At Tancred's name, like one all drunk and mad,
She rush'd to where his breathless frame was laid;
And seeing that fair face so calmly sweet,
She leapt not, no, she hur'd her from her seat.

Every one knows the last two lines of the original.—

Vista la faccia scolorata e bella,
No scese, no, precipitò di sella.

In Mr. Smith's version the essentials of both are neglected:—"hurled her" is bad English; "calmly sweet" and "leapt" are not Tasso's. It is the sight of the bloodless face of her beloved that moves Erminia; and by overlooking the contrast between *seese* and *precipitò*, the force of a line, the finest, perhaps, in the whole poem, is lost. The following would be a much closer version of the distich:—

And as that comely pallid face she eyes,
She lights—no! headlong from the saddle flies!

Far worse omissions or mistakes may be found in most versions. But in a translation of which the chief merit is a literal rather than a virtual allegiance to the poet it is a peculiar fault to tamper with essential features of his text. For instance, in the episode of Sophronia and Olindo, the king's quitting the scene of execution is a necessary circumstance,—since he must afterwards be met by Clorinda, who rides to seek him, after she has interrupted the lovers' tragedy. Mr. Smith falsifies the passage by omitting this incident,—putting a very feeble line in its place:—

Here raised the Pagan crowd a cry of wail,
And wall'd the Faithful, but with voice subdued;
Even in the king's stern bosom there prevail
Thoughts with unwonted tenderness imbued.
He felt them, and disdain'd; nor would he quail.
Albeit his glance was true 'ring as his mood.
Then only sharpest not the common woe,
Sophronia; mid all tears, thine do not flow.

In the original it stands thus—

Ei presentillo, e si adognò, né volle
Pigliarsi, e gli occhi torse, o si ritrasse.

We submit, as a more faithful version of the stanza:—

Bereat the Pagans raised a loud lament;
And Christians wall,—with bated voices they:
And something of a strange, soft sentiment
Even through the king's hard bosom seemed to play.
He felt the change, indignant; to relent
Averse; and glared askance, and strode away.
Mid all this grief, Sophronia, thou alone
Art calm, nor weepst, wept by every one.

The same canto affords another instance, the last that need be cited, where the error consists in overlaying the poet's meaning. The king, after granting the lovers their lives, at Clorinda's request banishes them; and then exiles or imprisons those of the remaining Christian people who are fit for arms. But nothing is said of "slaying" any;—the addition of this circumstance, indeed, is not merely gratuitous, but is an error in taste; as the concluding distich of the stanza, merely speaking of the pains of exile, is flattened by it.—

But the suspicious king esteem'd it fraught
With risk to have such worth united there:
Whence exil'd, as his stern commandment taught,
Beyond Judaea's bounds did both repair.
Then slew he, following up his cruel thought,
Some of their folk, and some transported far.
Ah! with what mournful heart did each retire
From the sweet bed, his babes, and aged sire!

Tasso's words are:—

Ei pur, seguendo il suo crudel consiglio,
Bandisce altri fedeli, altri confina.

"Their folk" is a very awkward substitute for

fedeli—"Christian people." The stanza may be turned thus:—

The jealous king some dangers consequent
On so much virtue fearing where he reigned,
The exiled pair beyond the frontiers went
From Palestine—the tyrant so ordained:—
Who, following still his pitiless intent,
The Christians banished some, and some enchained.
Alas! how loth to leave the infant faces,
Their hoary sires, and sweet domestic places!

From such examples, which could easily have been multiplied, it appears that Mr. Smith is not always so exact as he might easily have been. On the whole, however, his performance is a careful one,—and certainly far superior to the slovenly attempt by Wiffen. But it has not fulfilled the promise indirectly given in the preface, where, accusing Fairfax of taking liberties with Tasso, Mr. Smith avers that his words—"chosen throughout with the most fastidious nicety"—"can rarely be added to, curtailed or altered in any way without some loss of effect." It must be added, that, in spite of the licence of the old Elizabethan translator, his version gives, in the main, a truer reflection of the 'Gerusalemme' than Mr. Smith, with a much staid adherence to the text, has succeeded in producing. Whoever desires to test this assertion, must refer to the principal scenes of the poem:—let him, for instance, compare Fairfax's handling of the combat between Tancred and Argante, in the nineteenth canto, with Mr. Smith's account of the same. If the latter have—though even this not invariably—more literal exactness, Fairfax far exceeds him in poetic fervour and ease; which, after all, are the first essentials in representing an epic author. A translator who should unite both merits will be oftener desired than found. In the meanwhile, on a trial of separate qualities, sentence would clearly be in favour of those which most strongly reflect what is the finest in the original poet,—his grandeur, namely, his pathos, and his voluptuous gracefulness.

NEW NOVELS.

The Two Families, an Episode in the History of Chapelton. By the Author of 'Rose Douglas.' 2 vols. Smith, Elder & Co.

So favourable—as may be recollected—was our opinion of 'Rose Douglas,' that another novel by the same writer could not fail to be welcomed by us with more than ordinary heartiness and curiosity. 'The Two Families' will neither injure nor increase its author's reputation. Again and again have we been treated to the contrast betwixt Riches without Religion and Poverty with Piety displayed in one and the same family; but the one has rarely been set in array against the other in a manner more entirely void of offence or of those exaggerations which point out wealth as a crime and lowly estate as a virtue in themselves. The spoiled child, Eliza Wilson, by whose hapless fate the moral of the tale is pointed, is well drawn, until the moment of her marriage. The events connected with and succeeding to this egregious case of sale and barter are forced for the sake of effect. We hardly believe that people represented to be so proud as the Chamberlyns would stoop to court the *Parvenu's* heiress with so little veil upon their cupidity:—nor do we imagine that any well bred persons would so nakedly and suddenly commence the course of contemptuous insult which this aristocratic mother and son are described as adopting towards the bride from the very moment when the Church had tied fast the impoverished man's meanness to the ambitious girl's money. But there is a dismal reality in the account of poor Eliza's return home; and the solace to which she subsequently has recourse—namely, the bottle—comes only too naturally by way of sequel to such an ill-omened and un-

equal marriage. That to the bottle the coffin shortly succeeds, is also in the natural *dis-order* of such a wretched history. We are less satisfied with the final distribution of the great fortune, and apprehend that the authoress of 'Rose Douglas' has small experience of settlements, deeds of conveyance, &c., &c., though her conception of sacrifice and generosity is right royally munificent. The country beaux and belles of Chapelton, and the noisy smartness of the Glasgow ladies are not badly done; but the invention of 'The Two Families' might have been fully and sufficiently wrought out in a quarter of the compass of the present novel.

The Delameres of Delamere Court: a Love Story.

By the Author of 'The Duchess.' 3 vols. Newby.

HERE is another tale in which the lesson is taught by the working out of a strong contrast. The daughter of a manufacturer, rich, wise, witty, poetical, ambitious and beautiful, is commissioned by our author with the task of bringing to his senses a young gentleman of ancient family, whose sentimental contentment in his ancestry is considered by him not only as warrantable, but "as a discharge in full" of all the duties in life which a man and a citizen ought to perform.—It is written, of course, that Frank Delamere shall fall in love with Mary Staunton. On his offering himself and his 'scutcheon to her acceptance, the high-souled heroine roundly rejects both;—accompanying her refusal with a discourse upon aims and ends, rights and duties, such as Madame Deudavant loves to put into the mouths of her great ladies when they fall in love with operatives or when they part company from their proud families with the view of earnestly undertaking the work of social regeneration! Greatly mortified is Frank Delamere on thus "receiving the basket" filled with truths so little complimentary as those volunteered by Mary. But the Fates are kind to him. He rushes into excesses,—is ruined,—and by chance (it appears) enters into Mr. Staunton's office as a clerk; gets on as clerks never do out of novels,—and presently, according to that well-known change in affairs which has furnished Mr. Sheridan Knowles with more than one moving fourth act, begins, in his turn, to patronize, to torment and to enthrall this *Queen of Sheba* among cotton-spinners' daughters.—In spite of this earnest though somewhat too theatrical defence of the dignity of labour, we early in the tale began to entertain misgivings that the author of 'Delamere' had not full faith in his own philosophies. So soon as the impoverished and eccentric uncle from India turned up we breathed at our ease:—being satisfied that, as is usual in fairy tales, the rags of the old, disagreeable mendicant covered the cornucopia of the Good Fairy. That reader must be very young and tender indeed who can for an instant really accept Uncle John's parade of his misery. With ourselves, the only suspense which we enjoyed after he appeared was some uncertainty as to the moment when the transformation would take place. This transparency, however, does not prevent 'The Delameres' from being a fairly good novel of its kind.—Too much time is spent at its commencement among the small people of the small town where the tale begins, since they have no subsequent occupation in the drama; but from the moment that the curtain falls upon their twaddle and tea-drinking, the action and the passion move rapidly enough:—and we read on, with as much eagerness as though we had been unable to foresee for a page's length what was going to befall the lessoned hero and the lesson-giving heroine!

The Grenville Papers: being the Correspondence of Richard Grenville Earl Temple, K.G., and the Right Hon. George Grenville, their Friends and Contemporaries. Edited by W. J. Smith, Esq.

[Second Notice.]

THESE volumes do not throw so much light as we had expected on the preliminary negotiations that led to the much discussed Peace of Fontenoy. In our opinion the King personally and "the King's friends" were mainly instrumental in urging on that peace with indecent precipitation. The King had been brought up in strong opposition to what was considered the policy of his grandfather's government; and two or three broad general opposition principles had been deduced therefrom or perhaps from 'The Patriot King' of Bolingbroke, and early impressed on his young mind. These were excellent in themselves, but his narrow and bigoted understanding could only misread or misinterpret them. Foremost amongst these plausibilities was, that he should reign over a united people, with a ministry formed on the broadest basis and selected from all parties,—not, in the significant phrase of the new court, as his grandfather and great-grandfather had done, by factions, connexions and confederacies. This he assumed to mean that if the proposed policy were acted on, there could be no efficient opposition; and he should not be "controlled as his grandfather had been"—and as all constitutional monarchs must be. Therefore it was that, from the first, the most constitutional endeavour by constitutional means to regulate or direct public affairs against his wish, opinion, or prejudice, was called "force" to constrain and dictate to him. Another excellent State maxim of the Leicester House school was, England and English interests, as distinct from Continental wars, alliances, and subsidies. Few persons will now deny the wisdom of this policy; but it did happen that when George the Third ascended the throne we were in the thick of the fight—in the heat of the battle—bound by treaties—and reaping the glorious fruits of an energetic ministry in triumphs all over the world. The King could not comprehend that in national policy, time and circumstances are modifying influences. In the speech which he addressed to the ministers at their first meeting after the death of his grandfather, he spoke of the "bloody war" in which we were engaged,—and it is generally understood that it was on direct remonstrance from Mr. Pitt that the phrase was modified. The King, indeed, from the outset was resolved on peace; and he pined over national triumphs as so many stimulants to the people to persevere in war, and over every conquest as only foreshadowing additional disgrace in the surrender.

The resolute determination with which the peace policy was pursued—the sacrifices at which the peace was obtained—led to a general and indignant outcry that the interests of the nation were betrayed and sold. We shall not enter into this question at present, further than to observe that it is not to be disposed of by confident assumptions after the cavalier fashion of Lord Brougham. We agree with his Lordship, that even if sold, the Duke of Bedford was no party to the sale; but when he proceeds to treat the charge against him as a "revolting absurdity," because an ambassador at Paris is "corresponding daily with the Cabinet in London," from which, therefore, he daily receives instructions, we must remind him that in 1762 there was a Cabinet rather in form than in fact—there was a ministry in form but a minister in fact,—in brief, that Lord Bute and the King were absolute. The Duke of Bedford, we believe, was selected and sent to Paris to nego-

tiate the treaty because the peace was resolved on and agreed on—because his opinion was known to be in favour of peace, and had been consistently so, from the time when and before the negotiations were opened under Mr. Pitt in 1761. The Duke, no doubt, received his instructions formally through the proper office and officer, but strengthened by the King and Lord Bute,—to whom he appears to have considered himself especially responsible; and these private instructions jumped with his own humour—peace at any price. How resolutely this was determined on, we learn from an incidental paragraph in one of Lord Bute's letters to Mr. Grenville, written in July. A despatch intended to be sent to Sir Andrew Mitchell, resident at the Court of Prussia, had been submitted to Lord Bute, of which his Lordship approves—but—"he would have wished (according to what he took the liberty of hinting to him the other day) that Mitchell had been instructed to insinuate to His Prussian Majesty that our Peace must not be obstructed by any demur on his side."

Lord Brougham may learn what were the facts about the "daily" correspondence between the responsible ministers and the ambassador from the confidential letters which passed between the Secretaries of State here published:—he may guess at the controlling influence exercised by the one over the other,—and learn that "two or three points" might be "given up" without even communicating with the responsible minister.—

"The Earl of Egremont to Mr. Grenville.

"Sunday afternoon (September 26, 1762.)

"Dear Sir,—I received yours, by Jackson, this morning; very sorry to draw you from your retreat into so horrid a scene as I fear you will find here. I conclude you lie at Missenden to-night, and therefore send you the Duke of Bedford's despatches, that you may be fully informed before you come to town; you will see that that headstrong silly wretch has already given up two or three points in his conversation with Choiseul, and that his design was to have signed without any communication here. I have been with Lord Bute this morning, and had much talk with him, some I did not like, but I have not given way in anything; nor shall in the attack I expect from the superior, who I am to see after the Drawing-room. EGREMONT."

Walpole, always better informed than Whig or Tory officials and historians are willing to admit, says—"Bad as the peace proved, it was near being concluded on terms still more disadvantageous; for France receiving earlier intelligence than we did of the capture of the Havannah, had near prevailed on the Duke of Bedford to sign the treaty; but Aldworth [Neville], his secretary, had the prudence or foresight to prevent that precipitate step." Sir Denis Le Marchant says that this statement rests on Walpole's unsupported testimony; and he endeavours to show by reference to dates and facts that the story is very improbable, and that "the Duke never pretended to sign against the King's orders." Why, Walpole makes no such statement: to sign without orders, and to sign against orders, are surely very different things. Neither does it follow, as we have had occasion to observe before, that in 1762 "the King's orders" were the orders of the Ministry; and we have proof in Lord Egremont's letter, just quoted, that the Duke was not afraid to sign not only without instructions from the Secretary of State, but without informing the latter of his intentions. There is, indeed, a letter in this collection, without date, from Mr. Neville, Under Secretary of State, but at that time employed at Paris in carrying on the negotiations, and whose zeal and ability the Duke highly commended, to which we think the Editor has, conjecturally, affixed a wrong one, and which letter, we suspect, refers to the very fact alluded to by Walpole.—

"The Earl of Egremont to Mr. Grenville.

"3 quarters past 3.

"Dear Sir,—I have this moment received a despatch from Paris, and in it a most extraordinary and alarming secret letter from Mr. Neville. I have sent the whole to the King. Pray let me have a quarter of an hour with you this evening. I am ever, &c. EGREMONT."

As further specimens of Lord Brougham's daily despatches, and of the controlling influences of the Secretaries of State, we may add the following short notes.—

"The Earl of Egremont to Mr. Grenville.

"Saturday morning (February 12, 1763.)

"Dear Sir,—Perhaps the Duc de Nivernois has sent you word that the Treaty was to be signed as yesterday; if not, I would not leave you a moment ignorant of the news after I had it. Ever yours most faithfully, EGREMONT."

"What think you of the D. of B. [Duke of Bedford], who lets the King's Ministers be informed by the French Ambassador of the appointment to sign the Treaty?"

"The Earl of Egremont to Mr. Grenville.

"Wednesday evening, 7 o'clock, (March 2, 1763.)

"Dear Sir,—I send you a more extraordinary letter than has yet come from that extraordinary personage His Majesty's Ambassador in France; pray return it when you have read it, because I want to get it copied for answering, before it circulates any farther. Ever yours, &c. EGREMONT."

If it were all such a matter of course affair—all smooth sailing and agreement—as we are told, why do the Secretaries so heartily abuse the Duke of Bedford?—why was Lord Egremont so indignant that he did not speak to Lord Bute for a fortnight together?—why did Mr. Grenville write thus in his private Diary?—

"During the summer, when the negotiation for the Peace was set on foot, Mr. Grenville had many struggles with Lord Bute upon the terms, which he was desirous to keep up higher than Lord Bute (who feared the negotiation might break off) could be brought to consent to. Mr. Grenville represented strongly against the giving up Guadaloupe and Santa Lucia, wanted to have an equivalent asked for Guadaloupe, and insisted and prevailed to have a compensation for the Havannah. Guadaloupe was given up at an Extraordinary Council called when Mr. Grenville was ill in bed, and not able to attend it."

We learn further from this Correspondence that in the beginning of October, the Earl of Egremont and Mr. Grenville were so little satisfied with the conduct of the Duke that they had resolved to disavow the preliminaries!—although by the advice of Lord Mansfield they agreed to write at first gently, and prepare him "by degrees," "and make him, if possible, feel the mortification of the total disavowal less sharply." Forthwith Lord Bute informed his "dear George" that some "new arrangements" were necessary "to carry through the King's measures;" that he must remove to the Admiralty; and that it was proposed—he might have said agreed—that Mr. Fox should take the lead in the House of Commons.

Mr. Fox's accession was a matter of direct bargain: he undertook—in the phrase which happens to be current at this hour—as "piece-work," to justify the peace, and carry it triumphantly through the House of Commons, leaving his reward—a peerage—to the conclusion of the job. The negotiation was carried on through Lord Shelburne, and gave rise to an amusing scene, well described by Lord Mahon. Lord Bute had understood that Mr. Fox on receiving the peerage was to resign the lucrative office of Paymaster of the Forces. Mr. Fox, however, maintained that the peerage was the reward for carrying through the peace. Both parties now appealed to Lord Shelburne. "Lord Shelburne, much embarrassed, was obliged to own that he had in some degree extenuated or exaggerated the terms to each, from his anxiety to secure, at all events, the support of Mr. Fox;

which he thought at that period essential to the government. These misrepresentations Lord Bute, now forgiving, called "a pious fraud." "I can see the fraud plain enough," said Fox; but where is the piety?" Mr. Fox, however, was resolute,—got his peerage, and kept his place.

If the peace was such a blessing, and gave such general satisfaction, how is it that the Ministers would not defend it?—that the most disreputable man of his age was specifically bribed to do the specific job? Where was the necessity for such enormous bribery, to induce the House of Commons to accept the preliminaries that we read of it with amusement, and grow incredulous from its magnitude?—and yet it is to be proved on better historical evidence than nine-tenths of historical facts. We are assured that the Secretary to the Treasury, Mr. Martin, paid in this way 25,000*l.* in one morning. Yet, Mr. Martin was not the only, nor perhaps the principal, agent. Mr. Ross Mackay, private secretary to Lord Bute, and afterwards Treasurer to the Ordnance, acknowledged that with his own hand he "secured above one hundred and twenty votes on that vital question":—"that he paid forty members a thousand pounds each, and eighty other members five hundred pounds each; and he excused this on the ground that "nothing else could have surmounted the difficulty." A "difficulty"? Why, we are now told that the most "eminent authorities" approved of this peace; that—in this we agree—"the King was beyond measure pleased with it;" and, which we cannot deny, it was approved by the votes of the House of Commons, 319 to 65:—a fact on which Walpole observes that had the names as well as the numbers been published, the country would have known "the names of the sixty-five who were not bribed."—We are told, too, by Lord Brougham that the peace was conformable to the treaty begun by Mr. Pitt in 1761. If so, why was it not concluded by Mr. Pitt in 1761? He tells us further that "the islands of Guadaloupe and St. Lucia had been offered by him [Mr. Pitt] and Canada had been offered by France. These were the main body of the cessions on either side." How is this statement to be reconciled with Mr. Pitt's instructions that "the cession" of St. Lucia is not even to be treated about—is not "admissible"? Was Greece, without which it was then believed that Senegal could not be held, and which had been ceded to Mr. Pitt and was yielded by Bute, not worth mention? Was liberty to fish in the St. Lawrence and to dry fish at Newfoundland nothing? If so, Mr. Pitt and the politicians of his day and long after made an astounding noise about nothing,—which they called a nursery for seamen. In 1761 Mr. Pitt told the King—and that perhaps was his fatal error—"that if he were even capable of signing a treaty" which did not secure to England "the exclusive fishery of Newfoundland, he should be sorry he had ever got again the use of his right hand. Mr. Pitt, we believe, was so strongly opposed by Lord Bute and the peace party, backed by the King, that for a moment he faltered, consented to modify his opinions, and yield to the majority; but he soon repented, and declared that "he would not remain responsible for measures he was no longer allowed to guide," and resigned. This declaration is generally supposed to apply exclusively to the refusal to declare war against Spain; but Mr. Pitt knew that the refusal was but one evidence of the court policy; and the resolutions and instructions of the Common Council to the city representatives show clearly what he and they thought that policy foreshadowed—"oppose all attempts for giving up such places as may tend

to lessen our present security or, by restoring the naval power of France, render us subject to fresh hostilities." When the preliminaries of Bute's peace were brought under the consideration of the House, Mr. Pitt rose from a sick bed and went down to the House swathed in flannels, "suffering," as he said, "under the most excruciating torture" and at "the hazard of his life," that he might "raise up his voice, his hand, his arm against the preliminary articles of a treaty that obscured all the glories of the war, surrendered the dearest interests of the nation, and sacrificed the public faith by an abandonment of our allies." Mr. Pitt, we know, was a consummate actor; but it is impossible to believe that this was all acting.

The best account of the celebrated treaty with Mr. Pitt in August 1763 is given in this work by Mr. Smith, the editor;—who has been enabled from Mr. Grenville's Diary to throw some light on the heretofore inexplicable change which took place in the King's opinions and conduct between the first and second interviews. From the latter Mr. Pitt came away all amazement, and declared that if examined on oath he could not say why a negotiation which opened and proceeded so satisfactorily had been so suddenly broken off. The following is from the Diary itself.—

"Saturday, 27th August. Mr. Grenville went to the King, saw Mr. Pitt's servants waiting in the Court at the Queen's House, and was near two hours before the King called him in. Mr. Grenville found His Majesty a good deal confused and flustered; he resumed the conversation of the former day, entered fully into his own situation from the time he had been first called upon by His Majesty to the management of his affairs, stated the declarations that were made to him of support to be given to him then, and of the usage he had met with, at all which the King seemed much disturbed; reminded his Majesty of Lord Bute's letter to him in October, 1761, in which his Lordship told him that the King would never abandon him, that his honour was the King's honour, his disgrace the King's disgrace. The King held pretty near the same language as before, took no notice of Mr. Pitt's having been with him, and in less than twenty minutes bowed to Mr. Grenville, told him it was late, and, as he was going out of the room, said with emotion, '*Good morrow, Mr. Grenville*,' and repeated it again a second time, which was a phrase he never had used to him before.—Sunday, 28th. Lord Bute went in the morning to Kew, where he saw Mr. Elliot and Mr. Jenkinson, where they had a long discourse with him, in which they terrified him so much upon the consequences of the step he had persuaded the King to take, that he determined to depart from it, and to advise His Majesty to send to Mr. Grenville. Mr. Grenville received a message in the afternoon from the King, to come to him at eight o'clock in the evening. When he came he found the King in the greatest agitation. His Majesty told him he had seen Mr. Pitt, that he had acquainted him he sent for him, not for any apprehensions he was under from Parliament, but as a general strengthening to his Government at the close of the Peace, by which he meant to abide. * * The King said to Mr. Grenville that these terms [proposed by Mr. Pitt] were too hard, that he could not think of complying with them; he had therefore once more sent to Mr. Grenville, to tell him that he wished to put his affairs into his hands; that he gave him the fullest assurances of every support and every strength that he could give him towards the carrying his business into execution; that he meant to take his advice, and his alone, in everything; that it was necessary the direction should be in one man's hands only, and he meant it should be in his; that he had no right, after what had passed, to expect a compliance with this proposal, but that he hoped for it, from the zeal, attachment, and love with which he had hitherto served him. * * Monday, 29th. Mr. Grenville went to the Queen's House between two and three o'clock. The King sent him word he was much fatigued, and desired not to see him till the

evening. Mr. Grenville went at eight o'clock. The King told him that Mr. Pitt had again been with him, and had again rose in his demands; that the King told him they were such as he could by no means comply with, upon which, with some general expressions of duty and respect, and a long encomium upon Lord Temple, he withdrew. His Majesty repeated his desire to Mr. Grenville, that he should take the management of his affairs, with the fullest assurance of his thorough support. He read part of a letter to him from Lord Bute, in which his Lordship speaks with the greatest regard imaginable of Mr. Grenville, advising the King to give his whole confidence to him; showing the necessity of his own retreat, from the reasons of nationality, unpopularity, &c. &c. Mr. Grenville, in discourse with Mr. Elliot, at Shene, on Sunday, the 16th of October, 1763, was told by him, that Lord Bute had sent to Mr. Beckford on Monday, the 29th of August (the morning after Mr. Grenville's interview with the King), to express how sorry he was the negotiation with Mr. Pitt had failed by the high terms he had demanded; that it still might do, if he would be contented with the filling up the two Secretaries of State, and putting a neutral person at the head of the Treasury instead of Lord Temple (which person was thought to be Lord Northumberland), promising that in six months' time it should be open to Lord Temple, and that other offices might immediately be disposed of; but that His Majesty could not consent to have his measures arraigned, and must give rewards to his servants who had stood by him. Mr. Beckford ran with all haste to make this offer to Mr. Pitt, before Mr. Pitt went the second time to the King, but could not prevail with him to listen to it. Observe that this extraordinary offer was made by Lord Bute after the King had told Mr. Grenville that he looked upon the negotiation with Mr. Pitt as over."

Thus, it appears that in the interval between Mr. Pitt's first and second interview, Lord Bute had been frightened by his interested subordinates, and he had frightened the King. All parties, however, were so deep in the negotiation that more duplicity than usual was required to extricate them; and it must be admitted that they played their parts to admiration. It is amusing after this scene to find the editor expressing fears lest we should do injustice to the character of George the Third by the supposition that "he could or would endeavour to use so much dissimulation as would deceive the profound sagacity and experience of Mr. Pitt." We are sorry to say, that every authentic revelation of the period tends to prove that the young King "could and would," if it were to serve a purpose, have deceived the profoundest sagacity of the wisest minister or man of his time.

The editor is of opinion that the commencement of the negotiation with Mr. Pitt is marked by Calcraft's letter to Lord Temple of the 10th of August. We doubt it:—we have no evidence that Calcraft's letter was authorized,—none that it had any result. We believe that the negotiation had been opened before and was carried on through Lord Shelburne. Shelburne's letter of the 30th to Mr. Pitt, wherein he speaks of the negotiation being at an end, and "*carried through the whole of it with such shocking marks of insincerity*,"—covers more, we think, than five or six days,—from the 24th or 25th, when Lord Bute applied to Beckford to procure him an interview with Mr. Pitt. This opinion is borne out by the conduct of the King so early as the 3rd, described by Lord Egremont in a letter to Mr. Grenville, written after the situation of President of the Council had been offered to, and declined by, Lord Hardwicke.—

"The Earl of Egremont to Mr. Grenville.

"Fleamly, Wednesday afternoon (August 3, 1763).

"Dear Sir,—The transactions of this day have been more extraordinary than any of the preceding ones. Lord Halifax spoke for half an hour, as well and as temperately as man could do; exactly upon

the same plan you had spoke yesterday, saying that there were but two parts to be taken after the answer of Lord Hardwicke, the one to stand by and support his Administration, the other to form another by taking in the Opposition: pressed him to resolve soon, that we were equally prepared to fight the battle to the utmost, if he decided for the first, or to retire if he decided for the latter; after turning this all the ways that eloquence could dictate or invent, no answer at all was made; and what was more remarkable, and contrary to whatever had appeared before, when Halifax talked of his giving support and confidence, and paused upon those words, not even the usual general assurances were given; and when he said that sure he could not mean to take in the whole body, and yield to the invasion of those he had detested, and paused upon that, the usual disclaiming of that was also suppressed, and nothing but obstinate silence. The same thing happened to me when I spoke, and a resolution not to give even a civil evasive answer was the whole of his behaviour. I must say, one so insulting and uncivil I never knew, nor could conceive could be held to two gentlemen. We propose trying again to-morrow, and in the meantime Lord Halifax writes to my Lord Chancellor. I write this to you desiring to know your thoughts upon this should it continue, whether we should never see him, except about office business, 'till your return, or whether we should (if so used for a constancy) put an end to it, and declare our inability to stay upon that foot. Pray be so good as to send back the messenger that we may hear by Friday before the Levée. I am, &c. &c.

"EGREMONT."

—What an admirable picture of the "firmness" as "the King's friends" called it, or of the dull dogged obstinacy, of the King. There can be little doubt that at that moment he and his advisers had resolved on a change, and, as we believe, had opened indirect communications with Mr. Pitt.

Of the personal influence of Lord Bute at that time, an amusing anecdote is told in one of Lady Temple's letters.—

"Mrs. Ryde was here yesterday, she is acquainted with a brother of one of the yeomen of the guard, and he tells her the King cannot live without my Lord Bute; if he goes out anywhere, he stops when he comes back to ask of the yeomen of the guard if my Lord Bute is come yet, and that his lords, or people that are with him, look as mad as can be at it. The mob have a good story of the Duke of Devonshire, that he went first to light the King, and the King followed leaning upon Lord Bute's shoulder, upon which the Duke of Devonshire turned about and desired to know which he was waiting upon. I really believe you will see a great flame rise soon, for certainly there is a general discontent, notwithstanding all the places and money they have given away."

Mr. Smith is of opinion that the retirement of Lord Bute had been long under consideration, and was decided on earlier than has been hitherto suspected.—

"So much secrecy was observed, that when it became publicly known, two or three days only before it happened on the 8th of April, it was generally supposed, even by the best informed persons, to be a very sudden resolve. He seems to have been invested with absolute power for the formation of the future Cabinet, which was to be completely arranged before his own resignation took effect. Mr. Adolphus, on the authority of private information, states that on this occasion a place in the Cabinet was offered to Pitt, but that he insisted on terms with which the King could not in honour comply. This report, however, is not confirmed by any information to be found either in the Grenville or Chatham correspondence. Horace Walpole alludes to it in a letter to Mr. Montague:—"They wished, too, to have had Pitt, if they could have had him without consequences." Walpole has also asserted that the Treasury and the seals of the Exchequer were first offered by Lord Bute to Fox, and refused by him; but it seems most probable that Lord Bute was, for reasons of his own, sincere in his wish for Mr. Grenville as preferable to other arrangements; and that Fox was only the alternative he should have had

recourse to, in case Mr. Grenville had declined the offer, and he should have been obliged to put "other things in agitation."

If Lord Bute were sincere in his wish that Mr. Grenville should become leading minister, why was he appointed as one of a triumvirate? We have heretofore expressed our opinion that Mr. Grenville was selected only because it was believed that he could be more easily controlled; and this view is borne out by the imperial tone, notwithstanding its familiar forms, in which Lord Bute informed him of "my final determination" when he had ventured to hesitate an objection.—

"The Earl of Bute to Mr. Grenville.

March 25, 1763.

"My dear George,—I have communicated to our common friend Elliot, the general points that passed between us. I did it on purpose that he might know my regard for you, and that he might carry you my final determination without incurring the suspicion that frequent visits bring with them, in this most critical minute. I shall continue to wish for you preferable to other arrangements, but if you cannot forget old grievances, and cordially take the assistance of all the King's friends that are determined to give it; if Lord Egremont's quitting the seals, or Shelburne having them, are obstacles to your mind at present insurmountable, I must in a few hours put other things in agitation, in which case, I again repeat, I expect the strictest honour, and that what has passed may convince you of my friendship, affection and opinion."

There is scarcely a letter or a page in these volumes which does not tend to elucidate some obscure point in the history of the period; but the several questions must be developed before the important bearing on them of incidental facts could be made apparent,—and this, of course, is beyond our power and our duty. We must therefore be content with the expression of our opinion as to the great historical value of this work, and our satisfaction at the able and careful manner in which it has been prepared and edited.

ALMANACS AND YEAR BOOKS.

YEAR books, directories, and almanacs still continue to pour in upon us,—and since our report of last week we have still a further report to make. The future historian of the literature of these times will be struck with the sudden rise and extraordinary fecundity of this branch of book-making. Seventy or eighty years ago some half-dozen almanacs—and those generally filled with trashy predictions of weather, events, and diseases—satisfied the English public. About that time, Thomas Carman, the bookseller, broke down the legal monopoly; and, in a state of free competition, improvement of quality soon led to increase of numbers. Now, the year books are an important class of themselves,—ministering to almost every serviceable want of the public and in point of volume constituting a small library. Such a rapid development in this branch of the book trade will not fail in interest for the literary annalist,—and will command attention from the social historian as indicative of the vast practical needs of our age.

Of the volumes which have appeared since our notice last week, the largest in size and completest in detail is *Thom's Irish Almanac and Official Directory*. Besides the usual calendar this thick tome contains lists of offices and officers, British and Colonial—statistics of Ireland—with peerage and baronetage for that country, and a guide to the university-colleges and other literary and educational institutions. Law, banking, the Church, and other corporate bodies and business have attention paid; while the inhabitants of the city and county of Dublin are arranged alphabetically as in the London Post Office Directory.

Dod's Peerage, Baronetage, and Knightage of Great Britain and Ireland re-appears with certain additions which render it more than ever complete. The recent brevet, the honours conferred for services connected with the Great Exhibition, certain changes among the Colonial bishops, the creation

of several new Judges,—have all tended to put the former editions of this work out of accord with facts. Of course these changes are marked in the reprint. A new feature, so far as we recollect, in books of its class is introduced in the statement of the birthplace of every person who is possessed of—or is next heir to—a title of honour. Altogether, this is a very well arranged and convenient handbook to the titled classes.—*Forster's Pocket Peerage of Great Britain and Ireland* is a very convenient and comprehensive little volume on a good plan. Whether it be exact in all its particulars is of course more than we can pretend to say; but its preface makes sharp comment on the blunders and omissions of rival compilations. An incorrect peerage may no doubt prove a very mischievous book, considering how many social considerations are based on its information; but from a brief examination of Mr. Forster's we should be disposed to rely with confidence on its statements.

What the foregoing is to the high titular classes *Webster's Royal Red Book* is to the general London world. Of a compendium so well known we need only say, that it retains its usual features of interest unchanged.

The nature of *The London and Provincial Medical Directory* is explained in its own announcement:—and the same may be said of *Reeves & Son's Amateur's and Artist's Companion and Almanac*, which is composed of paragraphs from the journals of the year, the *Athenæum* included.—*The Literary Almanac* is a new and promising aspirant for popular favour. Most of its contents are copied directly from our columns:—often with special acknowledgment of the source from which it is derived, and always under cover of a general reference in the preliminary note.—*Norton's Literary Almanac* is an American work of the same kind; but its list of books for the last year is extremely imperfect,—being, as we suspect, the catalogue of one or perhaps two New York publishers.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Edvard Charlton; or, Life behind the Counter: a Tale illustrative of the Drapery Trade and the Evils of the Late Hour System. By Frederick Ross.—There was more of the true philanthropy and philosophy of this subject in Hood's whimsical design of "Counter Irritation"—and his yet more whimsical assertion that

The bliss of Paradise was so supreme

Because that Adam did not lead in drapery—

than in the romance of shop-revenge, shop-crime, shop-suffering and shop-retribution by which Mr. Frederick Ross imagines that he is doing good and calling attention to the evils of forced and unnatural labour. For, a romance our tale may well be called; seeing that its hero, a good young man from Lincoln, who is betrothed to a good young woman at Lincoln, on arriving in London, to finish his business education, finds himself most favourably placed under humane and intelligent masters, until Destiny flings him into the way of a sinful shopman,—one Dennis. This Dennis conceives himself to have been long ago injured by Charlton's father; and on meeting Charlton vows a vow of revenge as stout, fierce and mediævally sanguinary and sublime as if Mr. James had devised it for one of his most terrible villains to emit under a ruin or at the gibbet's foot, at midnight, in a thunder storm. Thus runs Dennis the shopman's oath.—"Ah, Charlton! it struck me that he bore a strange resemblance to the old fellow. 'Tis fortunate! truly fortunate! my star is in the ascendant! Let me see, it is now five—ten—twelve years since his puritanical old father turned me adrift; the old wretch! Nevertheless, in that he did me a service: but his will was to injure me; he predicted that I should come to the gallows. Well, perhaps it will be his own son who will dance upon nothing in front of Newgate! I will repay the old fellow in his own coin. Providence seems to favour my wishes in this respect; seeing how scurvily I have been treated by the old vagabond, it has thrown this precious son of his in my way, and I will not prove ungrateful by neglecting the golden opportunity. I dare say his old father exults in his piety and virtue; but were they as high as a tower

and as firm as a rock, they shall fall, or my name is not Sam Dennis. Yes, I have played the first card, and the rest are in my hand! Turnbull's is not the house for you; I must have you speedily in some other, where the hours are later, where a ceaseless round of business stifles reflection, and where fatigue of body and lassitude of mind beget a love for the glass after business, and a steamboat excursion on Sundays. Yes, yes! he must not remain long at Turnbull's. I'll repay the old gentleman with interest!"—Let Mr. Ross be assured that the above is fustian too flimsy to be satisfactory in the market which he aspires to reach; resembling rather the tirades by which Mr. Mayhew assures us the costermonger delights his wet days than such dialogue and portraiture as the intelligent young men of England can accept or endure.—For the foolish and the tawdry this book was not intended; why, then, should it have been written in a style which only the foolish and the tawdry could bear?—and why should a writer whose purpose was "to interweave social evils with a thread of fiction" have recourse to the spasms and the incidents of the penny theatre?—We wish the draper's assistant many a better advocate than Mr. Ross.

Prose and Verse. By Mark Lemon.—For an express train, or for a parlour window, or for any other "pasture of events," as *Win Jenkins* hath it, where ten minutes are to be spent in merry or in melancholy reading,—this is a commendable miscellany. As happens in the case of all true humourists, Mr. Lemon's mirth is set off by passages of sadness, as sincere, after their kind, as are the jests with which they are alternated. His purposes, generally, are humane and kindly; and if we find in his "prose and verse" too frequent entries to the blank credit of ignorance and poverty and to the confusion of riches and respectability,—the fault was epidemic, belonging to the time when many of the tales and lyrics here collected were written. The current of sympathy flows no longer; like the River Thames in Sheridan's 'Critic,' with both its banks on one side,—but quietly takes its even way betwixt the field of cloth of gold and the field of cloth of frieze,—avoiding neither margin as an *Alatira* or an *Aceldama*, or place to be abstained from as accursed. We are, therefore, no longer called on to protest against the half justice and entire fallacy of such a class-spirit while recommending this miscellany for what it is,—a pleasant reprint including many pleasant things.

Bentley's Railroad Library.—The literature for the rail, long left to feed itself as it could, is gradually placing itself under the protection of the great publishing houses,—and the railway station is becoming, as we long since saw, and said, it would, a great publishing mart. The time from railway terminus to terminus may now, without going out of his way, be occupied by the respective traveller in pretty nearly such kind of reading as his taste may prefer. Mr. Bentley's series is intended, judging from the issues which it already includes, to cater for the light reader who would make a railway journey his hour of relaxation rather than of study. 'The Comic English Grammar,' 'Turf Characters,' and 'Notes on Noses' are the volumes already published, and these are announced to be followed by 'Martin Toutround' and 'Nights at Sea.'—The volumes are neatly printed,—in a neat cover,—of a size convenient for the pocket,—and at the price of one shilling each.

Memorials from Ben Rhydding; concerning the Place, its People, its Cures.—The amateur advocates of hydropathy seem curiously addicted to the mixing of water with their ink. It is noticeable that in this peculiar field of medicine more persons of general cultivation have come forward with their confessions and testimonials than is customary; and, finding themselves embarked in a topic which no special training has enabled them to understand, they have been driven to substitute vague impressions for those facts, calmly noted and logically connected, by which alone new discoveries can make progress among thoughtful and scientific persons. In the eyes of these last, the assertions of such authors as Sir Balwer Lytton, Messrs. Lane and Claridge—all, no doubt, sincere men, but none of them quali-

fied to deal with the subject—will carry with them little more conviction than did the assurances of those enlightened and noble persons who spoke up some twenty years since in recommendation of the cabbage-leaf cure of Mr. St. John Long,—or of those who are now ready to attach implicit credence to the newest *somnambule* from Paris advertising her infallibility and her *clairvoyance* in the *Times* betwixt the "Patent Alexandrian Trower" and the new "Coffee Pot" which is calculated to afford amusement at breakfast time to the younger branches of families."—Thus much in general of the amateur hydropathists who have written books on the bliss of the wet sheet, the raptures of being "packed," and the heaven on earth to be found in a *douche* taken once, twice, thrice a-day. But since we first made the acquaintance of empiricism in practice, bolstered up by enthusiastic ignorance in print, we have never met with a rarer specimen of washy folly than this memorialist of Ben Rhydding. We might have granted him the privilege by ancient right accorded to the zany who precedes the quack-salver,—namely, of delivering an oration in admiration of himself and his master's miracles;—but the justification of our critical sincerity by allowing *Trumpery* to speak in its own defence and *Trash* to enchant the public ear by its tin-kettle performances must have its limit,—and, alas! so largely is the liberty of prophesying abused in these days, that we could fill the *Athenæum* week by week with mere citations to prove that the works allowed to speak for themselves ought never to have been published.

A Voice for all Subjects. By Francis Robert Bertolacci.—"Francis Robert Bertolacci, Esq." on whose behalf this brochure is "privately printed," describes its subject as "a scheme for the consideration of conflicting theories and principles, and for expanding the minds of the working classes, to teach them the value of civil and religious liberty, and the use of acquired power especially with reference to the extension of the suffrage." The scheme embraces the formation of a Society for the establishment in towns and villages of Evening Lectures,—that is, "readings" from the works of approved authors. Under proper regulations, the plan might in some towns work well enough,—but even at best it would be liable to great abuse, and in the majority of places would probably fail altogether. If the lectures at Mechanics' Institutes have lost their attractions—in spite of the "experiments and musical illustrations,"—what hope is there of drawing the overworked to a calm hearing of historical or biographical compositions? Reading is essentially a home enjoyment. A good lending library would be a much more certain source of enlightenment for the working classes of a busy town than a week-day lecture after the hours of labour. But as popular education needs the services of all its friends, we should be glad to see Mr. Bertolacci's plan tried for a few months on a small scale.

A Narrative of the Kafir War of 1850-51. By R. Goddington and Edward Irving. Part I. and II.—This narrative of a disastrous war—unfortunately not confined, as the title-page seems to have presupposed, to the years 1850-51—appears as a quarterly serial. As it will probably require a notice at our hands in a later stage of its existence, we confine ourselves at present to a bare announcement of the publication.

Welsh Sketches; chiefly Ecclesiastical, to the close of the Twelfth Century. By the Author of 'Proposals for Christian Union.'—An essay intended, we suppose, for popular reading, on the rise of Christianity in Wales, its long conflict with the more ancient system of Bardism, and its final triumph under St. Gildardus. The whole is extremely superficial and incomplete—the author himself confessing that he has no knowledge of the native language! Nor is there any particular skill in the arrangement of topics or fire in the description of events to excuse the original want of sound information.

Letters Historical and Botanical relating to Places Haunted in the Vale of Teign. By Dr. Fraser Halle.—This book appears to have been written, printed and published at Chudleigh, in Devon, for the benefit of persons living in that

locality or visiting it. We suppose, therefore, that we must not be too critical. It is in the form of letters; and contains all the antiquarian, botanical and geological facts of the Vale of Teign, strung together in what we have no doubt the author thought the most agreeable and instructive manner. By those interested in or visiting the locality described, this work will be found a guide to the more interesting natural and historical objects which it contains.

Man and his Migrations. By R. G. Latham, M.D.—A course of lectures delivered by Dr. Latham in Liverpool constitutes the substance of this useful little book. Considerable matter in explanation and elucidation has been added;—and the whole affords an admirable birds-eye view of a vast and important section of the history of mankind.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

- Baydon's Annals of Christian Church, in Metre, 6s. 6d. cl.
 Bayly's (Dr.) True Religion, royal 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.
 Bentley's (Lord George) Life, by Darnell, 2d edit. 8vo. 15s. cl.
 Bradshaw's General Railway Directory, 1852, 12mo. 6s. cl.
 Caird's (J.) English Agriculture in 1850-51, 8vo. 14s. cl.
 Civil (The) Engineer, Vol. 14, 4to. 1s. cl.
 Clarendon and Contemporaries, by Lady T. Lewis, 3 vols. 2s. 3s. cl.
 Condon (J. B.) Entry and Entry, 1852, 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.
 Cole's (A. W.) The Cape and the Kaffirs, post 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.
 Corbett's (J. H. M. D.) Surgical Anatomy of the Arteries, 7s. cl.
 Cuddy's (J.) Channing on Self-Culture, 18mo. 1s. cl.
 Exiled Soul (The), 8vo. 2s. 6d. cl.
 Fiction, post 8vo. 6s. cl.
 Florist, Fruitist, and Garden Miscellany, 1852, 8vo. 12s. 6d. cl.
 Gauss's (L. F.) Writings, post 8vo. 3s. cl.
 Homer's Iliad, with Notes, edited by Arnold, 12mo. 12s. half bd.
 House Grammar, by C. Horrocks, 3 vols. post 8vo. 11s. 6d. bds.
 How to make Home Unhealthy, 2d edit. 18mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
 Innes's (W.) Hints on Church Government, 12mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
 Illustrated London News, Vol. 15, folio, 11s. cl.
 Keith's Memoirs and Correspondence, 2 vols. 8vo. 11s. cl.
 Kings of England, 4th edit. abridged, 18mo. 1s. cl.
 Kling and Hurwitz's Chess Player, Vol. 1, 6s. 8vo. 4s. 6d. cl.
 Little Henry's Records of his Lifetime, 4s. cl.
 London and Provincial Medical Directory, 1852, 12mo. 10s. cl.
 Lebnah's German in One Volume, 4th edit. 8s. with Key, 10s. 6d. cl.
 Life (The) of a Vagrant, 4th edit. 6s. 8vo. 1s. cl.
 Lyell's (Sir C.) Manual of Elementary Geology, new edit. 8vo. 12s. cl.
 Macgregor's History of the British Empire, 2 vols. 8vo. 11s. 6d. cl.
 Mariotti's First Italian Reading Book, 12mo. 3s. cl.
 Meredith's (M. A.) Thoughts of the Month, post 8vo. 4s. 6d. cl.
 Montgomerie's (J. J.) Poems, 3rd edit. 6s. 8vo. 6s. cl.
 Mules and (The) Principles of Modern Geometry, 8vo. 3s. cl.
 Notes and Queries, Vol. 4, 4th ed. 1s. 6d. cl.
 New Tales from Fairy Land, illustrated, 12mo. 5s. cl.
 Parlour (The) Magazine, Vol. 2, royal 8vo. 1s. cl.
 Railway Library, "Goldschmidt's Jew of Denmark," 1s. bds.
 Richardson and his Contemporaries, by the Earl of Albemarle, 2 vols. 8vo. 11s. cl.
 Ross's (F.) Edward Charlton, sm. 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.
 Schiller's Ballads and Poems, Trans. by Lytton, new edit. 10s. 6d. cl.
 Sherwood's (Mrs.) Brethren's Love, 4s. 2s. 6d. cl.
 Squire's Nicaragua, its People, &c. 2 vols. royal 8vo. 11s. 6d. cl.
 Strickland's Lives of the Queens of England, Vol. 5, 8vo. 12s. cl.
 Taylor's Builder's Price-Book for 1852, 8vo. 4s. 6d. cl.
 Trimmer's Fabulous Histories, 12mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
 Village Schoolmistress's Assistant, 12mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
 Wordsworth's (The) Harmony of the Apocalypse, 4to. 5s. cl.

EXPEDITION TO CENTRAL AFRICA.

THE friends of this Expedition will be glad to learn that supplies have been sent out to enable the travellers to undertake the important part of their journey from Borneo to the shores of the Indian Ocean. Lord Palmerston had liberally granted a further sum of 800l. for the mission, after having received the interesting accounts of Dr. Barth's journey to Adamawa, and of Dr. Overweg's exploration of Lake Tsad and the Bidduma Islands.—Instructions have been forwarded, too, by the Foreign Office to Capt. Homerton, the British agent in Zanzibar, to supply all the wants of the travellers as soon as they shall make their appearance on the coast. Furthermore, a request of Dr. Overweg for a supply of certain English goods has been complied with, and a sum of 65l. assigned for that purpose by the Foreign Office. The goods have already been carefully purchased, in accordance with the specific lists already sent home by Dr. Overweg—and are now on their way to Africa.

The travellers will thus find their wishes realized in the most encouraging manner,—and they will start with renewed vigour and strength on their perilous undertaking. The accomplishment of that undertaking promises the most important results,—and we can but hope that the same success may accompany them to the sea-shore which has signally crowned their previous efforts.

It may perhaps be of interest that we should allude shortly to the articles of commerce principally in demand by the nations of the interior of Africa. The travellers, on their departure from Europe, had taken out a well selected stock of English goods,—but they were obliged to add in Tripoli a considerable amount of inferior—Nürnberg, Trieste, and Tripoli—goods,—and the sub-

sides sent after them subsequently had to be supplied in the same manner. This was a great disadvantage, as the travellers found the various tribes whom they met with well acquainted with the different kinds of European merchandise,—and that they preferred invariably English goods to all others. Moreover, they expected English goods from the travellers, as the representatives of the English Government.

Dr. Overweg's list includes various kinds of hardware and cutlery—many dozens of razors, many thousands of needles (100,000 needles had been taken out by the travellers and disposed of), scissors, knives, pistols, watches, compasses and thermometers, musical boxes, silk goods, great numbers of small looking-glasses in strong tin cases, silver rings, and other small articles.

The stronger and more solid the goods are, the more they are esteemed by the natives:—who also prefer any kind of white metal (in rings, &c.) to gold.

It is hoped that the carefully selected goods now sent out will prove of great value to the travellers in their exploration of the countries between the Tead Basin and the Zanzibar coast, where money would be of little or no use.—This is most probably the last help and communication that they will receive from their friends in Europe, previously to their plunging into the altogether unknown wildernesses of the interior of Africa.

AUGUSTUS PETERMANN.

January 30.

ON THE METEOROLOGICAL PHENOMENA OF THE EXODUS.

THE direction of the wind which parted the Red Sea at the Exodus has always occasioned a difficulty in our comprehension of the account. Whether this wind were naturally or supernaturally produced, matters not: we equally believe the sacred writer's statement that, by such an outwardly sensible means the Almighty wrought the separation of the waters. It therefore is very unnatural—it is, in fact, incomprehensible, only because it seems absurd—that in indicating the means which produced the effect, the historian should have assigned a means which would not have that effect.

For, as the general direction of the Arabian Gulf is nearly north by south, it is not by an *east* wind that the average level of the sea, at its northern extremity, could be sufficiently lowered to enable the people to pass across a shallow place usually regarded as impassable on foot, even at low tide. Such a physical phenomenon could be wrought in that locality only by the physical instrumentality of a powerful wind blowing steadily for several hours from a northern quarter.

The difficulty may be partially met by the suggestion, that the expression corresponding to the Hebrew *רוח קדמ*, *ruah kadim*, is frequently used at the present time in the East to denote a violent, destructive, or parching wind, without any particular regard to the quarter from whence it blows. "Our guide," says Dr. E. Robinson, "as well as our other Arabs, called the wind which we had yesterday 'Shurkieh,' an *east* wind, although it blew from the south." (Bibl. Res. vol. i., p. 305.) If we could obtain a reasonable amount of evidence that the ancient Hebrew usage of *ruah kadim* admitted of a corresponding idiomatic extension in meaning, the difficulty would be wholly smoothed away as far as regards the Hebrew text of the account of the Exodus.

It is with this view that I now particularly desire to direct attention to the various ways in which this expression is found translated by the Septuagint. The Alexandrian Jews have always, with a singular consistency of purpose, rendered the Hebrew *ruah kadim* by some term which conveys a notion of the meteorological properties or the effects of this wind,—but never of the direction from whence it blew, if that direction were the east. The strength of this proposition is very materially enhanced when we consider that the different books through which the various instances that I shall quote are scattered, were not the work of one translator, who might have followed up a private notion of his own, but of a number of

learned men, all equally well acquainted with the idiomatic forms of their sacred mother-tongue, who worked independently of each other, and at different periods, and who, nevertheless, in this respect were unanimous,—that they entirely rejected the supposed literal sense, *east* wind, by which we have been accustomed to see it rendered.

I say *supposed*, because the primary sense of *ruah kadim* is quite as favourable to what I provisionally called its idiomatic acceptance, as to the other. The root *קד* originally denotes, "what is in front," "before." Its derivatives, as adverbs of place or time, have the corresponding meaning of "before," "formerly," "long ago," &c.,—or, as verbs, of "to precede," "anticipate," &c. The derivatives *kadem* and *kadim*, as nouns or adjectives, mean "the east" only in a sense of the strictest grammatical subordination to their primary, viz. because the four quarters, in Hebrew, are named from the position of a person facing the rising sun; whence the east quarter, *before* him, is called "the front,"—the south, "the right-hand,"—the north, "the left-hand,"—the west, "the behind." As it is a fundamental principle of the Hebrew language to refer to the primary rather than to the derivative for the meaning of a word, the meaning of the qualifying term *kadim* is more correctly "a fronting wind" than an "east wind."

We may perhaps trace up the origin of the broader idiomatic usage of *ruah kadim* to this two-fold radical sense,—which enables it to denote equally well a wind from the fronting quarter—that is, the east; or, a wind fronting you,—that is, blowing against you, opposing a sensible resistance to your course, or to that of a vessel; or, if applied to a sea, a wind blowing in front of, right against the course of the tidal current. The image is very obvious; and the transition from its double literal sense to its purely idiomatic acceptance for any strong, destructive, or parching wind, may have been further assisted by the circumstance that in Syria such winds chiefly come from the eastern desert.

This verbal explanation will prepare us to enter into the Septuagint forms of this expression with a readier apprehension of their meaning.

If the Hebrew word is employed figuratively in a moral sense, the Seventy have kept in view the primary notion of a wind blowing in front, right against one's course, and so increasing one's toil, by giving a corresponding explanatory term. Of this we have two instances:—in Job xv. 2, it is rendered by *πόνος*, trouble; and in Isaiah xxvii. 8, by *πνίγημα σκληρόν*, a hard or severe wind.

If the Hebrew word is used, either literally or figuratively, in relation to its effects on vegetation, the Seventy then follow up the purely idiomatic Hebrew usage by choosing an expression that describes the sort of wind meant, by its effects on vegetation,—*ἀνεμος καύσων*, a *burning-up* or *parching* wind. There are eight instances of this,—viz. Job xxvii. 21, Jeremiah xviii. 17, Ezekiel xvii. 10, xix. 12, Hosea xii. 2, xiii. 15, Jonah iv. 8, and Genesis xli. 6, 23, 27, where "ears blasted with the *kadim*" are simply rendered *στῆχυς ἀνιμώθητοι*—"wind-blasted ears."

Having thus far made out how evidently, and on what principle of interpretation, the Seventy deliberately cast aside the local qualification of the word, we have next to inquire why, when they do appear to introduce such a qualification, they have invariably adopted as equivalent to the Hebrew *kadim* (front or east) the Greek name of the south wind, *νόρος*; and that, chiefly, when the sacred text refers, literally or figuratively, to the action of the wind at sea. There are five instances of this singular anomaly—viz. Exodus x. 13, xiv. 21, Job xxxviii. 24, Ezekiel xxvii. 26, and Psalm lxxviii. 26.—besides an exception in Psalm xlvi. 7, where the effective quality of the wind in breaking "the ships of Tarshish" is rendered by *πνίγημα βίαιον*, "a violent wind." A passage in Luke xii. 55, helps us to solve the mystery:—"When ye see a south wind (*νόρος*) blowing, ye say, there will be heat"—(literally, a *burning-up* or *drought*, *καύσων* *τεταται*). Here we learn that in Palestine the wind called *νόρος* by those who spoke Greek was notorious for producing the same physical effects as those ascribed by the Hebrew writers to their

kadim. Thus, *νόρος* may very naturally have become the Greek equivalent of *kadim* in the Septuagint, when the other equivalent, *καύσων*, describing its effect of *burning-up*, would not have applied,—as when alluding to the sea.

This way of translating *ruah kadim* more particularly claims our attention, because it is the form employed by the Seventy in the account of the Exodus wind. This has given rise to as much perplexity as the original text itself. The view generally taken of the supposed variant of the Seventy is, that they intentionally departed from the import of the original, with a view either of explaining a statement which they regarded as obscure, or of correcting one which they regarded as incorrect. Yet, if the original was strictly meant for an east wind, and the Greek version was strictly meant for a south wind, it is rather puzzling why they should have gone out of the way to replace one difficulty by another of the same kind, since the effect described by Moses could no more have been produced by a wind from the south than by one from the east.

I believe that all such conjectures will be set at rest by the following considerations.—

Firstly. The translation of *kadim* by *νόρος* in Exodus xiv. 21, is not peculiar to that passage, and therefore cannot have been designed as an intentional explanation peculiar to it.

Secondly. The Seventy never have translated *ruah kadim* by *east* wind,* not even in Exodus xiii. 10, where they perhaps ought to have done so, if the direction of the wind rather than its quality or effects were implied in that passage.

Thirdly. In Psalm lxxviii. 26,—which is a direct allusion to this very phenomenon of the Exodus wind,—the Seventy have not only rendered *kadim* in the first verse of the distich by *νόρος*, according to their wont, but, what is still more extraordinary, they have actually chosen another word, *λεβας*, to render the Hebrew *teman* (right hand, or south) of the second verse, which refers to the return of the waters, and completes the historical allusion by suggesting the catastrophe. Thus, by a double series of tokens, it is made manifest that in their peculiar usage of *νόρος* the Seventy cannot ever have intended a *wind blowing from a particular quarter* (the south), but a *wind notorious for particular physical qualities*;† which is precisely what the Hebrew writers meant by a *ruah kadim*, and the Seventy knew them to have meant, when they translated it by the Greek name of a wind notorious for the same physical qualities. And this supposition is further strengthened by their choice of *λεβας* as an equivalent to the Hebrew *teman* (the south wind) in Psalm lxxviii. 26; for the radical sense of the Greek epithet shows it to denote a *wind producing rain or wet*. On this account the Seventy selected it to suggest the *particular quality* of the wind that brought on the overwhelming reflux of the tide, in contradistinction to the tempestuous parching *νόρος*.

It may be, that winds having that effect blow from the south in Egypt, as they do from the east in Palestine; and on this account the Egyptian Jews may have thought that the *quality* of wind which they meant to imply would be better understood by using that expression. Or, it may be, that when Greek was a living language, *νόρος* conveyed more forcibly, both to Greeks and to the Hellenistic Jews, the simple sense of the *quality* of the wind than the complicated one of its *direction*, as *kadim* did to a Hebrew; and for a similar reason—that the *quality* of a wind is a palpable reality, conveying a distinct impression to the popular understanding, and consequently is a suitable object of poetical comparison; whereas the *quarter* from whence it blows is a topographical abstraction, difficult to realize, and conveying no speaking image.

But whatever explanation the ingenious may

* It cannot be said that the Seventy did not admit that *kadim* meant *east*, for when that term does not qualify the *wind*, but really denotes the *quarter*, they translate by *καρά ἀνατολάς*, as in Ezek. xl. 1. et seq.

† This, and a passage in Can. iv. 16, are the only instances of the south wind being mentioned in the Bible; and in the latter the Seventy render it *νόρος*, because of the opposition in *quality* to the north wind *βορρᾶς* in the parallel clause, as denoting a cold and a warm wind.

devise for the peculiarity, the fact itself cannot be explained away. We have called upon the Septuagint to bear witness to their meaning in their interpretations of the Hebrew *ruah kadim*, by producing their own words; and we have found their purpose evident and consistent throughout:—to define the Hebrew idiom, when the sense is idiomatic, and explain the allusion when the sense is figurative,—to suggest the spirit of the venerable original, rather than ascribe a false limitation in sense to its terms, through the delusive method of a servile, unintelligent and unintelligible verbal copy.

And by this process we are spared from any further misunderstanding of the Hebrew historian's meaning in his reference to the Exodus wind, and of that of the Seventy in their version of it. According to its radical signification, the wind which sent out the waters was a *fronting wind*, blowing against the tidal current, and thus coming from the north;—according to the idiomatic usage of the term it was a *tempestuous* and *perching* or *drying-up* wind, since it produced that effect on that occasion. But as the resources of the Greek language do not admit of rendering these two ideas in *one* word, as the Hebrew does, the Seventy chose, as the most familiar sense, the latter, and rendered it by the term which they usually employ to describe a wind of a quality producing that effect. They were not afraid of their meaning being misunderstood by their contemporaries; and if we have not understood them, it is because we hastily judged them by a single passage, instead of deliberately comparing them with themselves.

FANNY CORBAUX.

THE ARCTIC EXPEDITIONS.

DESPATCHES, dated Grantley Harbour, Sept. 30, 1851, have been received from Commander Moore, which confirm the intelligence respecting the unusual quantity of ice in Behring's Straits during last summer. Commander Moore says:—"The pack this year extended at least 160 miles farther south than in either of the two previous summers, and I am therefore inclined to think that the *Enterprise* (Capt. Collinson's ship) will be unable to make any considerable progress to the eastward this year. The only opinion I can form why the ice should make its appearance so much farther south this season is that since the breaking up of the winter, light winds and constant fogs have prevailed."

Commander Moore states, that during his stay at Michaelovski—whither he went to pick up a party of Aleutian islanders who it was arranged by the Governor-General of Sitka should assist the Arctic Searching Expeditions—he obtained information from a Russian that a vessel had arrived off Point Barrow in 1848, that she had been attacked by the natives, and that the whole of the crew had been killed. The Russian added, that he had heard this story on more than one occasion,—but did not believe it to be true. It is almost superfluous to state, that Commander Moore gathered no manner of evidence confirmatory of this report:—which seems to belong to that class of fable now in favour with the natives on the shores of the Arctic Sea.

It is greatly to be lamented that the American whalers which frequent Behring's Straits have done a vast amount of injury to the inhabitants on the coasts on both sides of the Straits by the introduction of a large quantity of spirits, with which the crews of the ships have supplied them. This moral poisoning appears to have early produced fatal results,—for it was in the vicinity of the localities referred to that Lieut. Barnard was murdered.

Commander Moore makes no mention of the *Investigator*!—so, we may conclude that her gallant Captain has succeeded in carrying her beyond the pack ice at the entrance of Behring's Straits.

We observe, that it has been notified to the engineers at Portsmouth that volunteers are required for the steam-vessels fitting out for the Arctic Expedition about to proceed to Wellington Channel to make further search for Sir John Franklin,—and several engineers have offered for the service. The great and momentous question respecting the com-

mand of this steam expedition is not decided. There will, we know, be no lack of volunteers; and it behoves the Admiralty more than ever to select a man who will go out with all the requisite qualifications for the high and responsible office, and carry with him the confidence of the country.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

The respective ministers of England and France have exchanged the ratifications of the international copyright law—the provisions of which were laid before our readers some weeks ago. The exchange, it appears, was made on the 8th of January; and, of course, the clauses of the treaty came into operation on that day.

The publication of the last number, completing the volume, of the *Journal de la Librairie* for 1851 enables us to lay before our readers the literary statistics of France for the year which has just closed. They do not differ much from those of 1850; but the difference, however small, is on the right side. The total number of books, newspapers, pamphlets, and works of all kinds published during the year, is 7,250,—showing an increase of 142 on the preceding twelvemonth. 6,817 works have been published in French:—in which are included 47 written in the different provincial dialects. Among the works published in foreign languages we notice 65 German, 68 English, 93 Spanish, and 160 Latin publications. Of these, 4,219 were printed in Paris alone, and 3,087 only in the departments,—Algeria furnishing 44 for her share. Reprints and new editions figure in the list for 1,677,

leaving 5,673 works which may be considered new. 182 geographical maps and plans, 3,961 engravings and lithographs, 885 pieces of vocal music, and 809 works of instrumental music, complete the intellectual and artistic harvest of France for 1851. —The labours of French Journalism are worth looking back to. Of the 166 newspapers which enlivened the past year, and many of which were its offspring—nearly three-fourths have ceased to exist. Several of them were destined to supply special wants which were not, it appears, so generally felt by the public as the Editors surmised, or were not at any rate sufficiently pressing to compel subscription. Besides the *Tribune Chronométrique*—which our readers may remember our mentioning on its appearance,—we notice *Le Moniteur des Épiciers*, the *Journal des Fleurs* and the *Journal de Conchyliologie*, the *Alambic*, the *Revue Gastronomique* and *L'Entr'acte du Gastronomiste*, the *Journal des Plâtres*, and lastly, the *Journal des Solutions Grammaticales*:

—the titles of which sufficiently indicate the particular classes of readers to which they were addressed. The dramatic world of France—fortunately for the dramatic world in all other countries—has not been inactive. We have often wondered what would be the result to Europe in general of a theatrical famine among our neighbours:—and whether, in such a case, we in particular would take to growing our own plays:—for we apprehend that the recent Convention, with its accommodating clause respecting dramatic "adaptation," will leave us the same temptation as heretofore to rely on importation. For the present, however, the alarming contingency appears distant. The year 1851 shows a brilliant array of 263 works written for the French stage:—35 dramas, 14 comedies, 12 operas or lyrical dramas, 5 ballets, and nearly 200 vaudevilles, make up the number. It will be gratifying to some of our readers to observe that not a single tragedy, in the French sense of the word, has made its appearance.—As a concluding and sweeping statistical remark, we may add, that the French press during the last ten years has given to the world 82,000 works of Literature and Art. It might be curious to compare this figure with the intellectual returns of the Imperial epoch—say from 1804 to 1814. A somewhat too sanguine organ of the present system in Paris, whose idea of the forcing power of decrees and martial law seems unbounded, throws out that the intention of Government, when it has settled more pressing matters, is, to "create a literary movement resembling that of 1828." We suspect that such movements are not to be compassed by any dictatorship; at any rate it would, we think, be advisable, with such projects, to re-consider the lists

of proscription—which contain a host of literary names. It would be rather awkward if Augustus when he wished "to make his literary movements" were to find out that Virgil had been sent to Cayenne.

The high dignitaries of our Inns of Court have, it is said, begun to feel that the popular demand for reform is not to be slighted even in the closest of ancient corporations. An improved system of legal education for the future members of the bar is a natural and reasonable need, to which we have never heard a single practical objection of any weight; and we believe that the benchers of the four Inns held a meeting at the Hall of Lincoln's Inn on Monday last to consider what alterations are required in the present system in order to bring it into greater harmony with other reformed and reforming institutions. The press was not admitted on the occasion;—the public are consequently unaware of the exact nature of the ideas brought forward. An important point, however, has been gained by the mere opening of the discussion.

We understand that arrangements have been completed at the Government School of Mines for the delivery of a set of lectures for working men only, directed to the particular illustration of the contents of the Museum of Practical Geology. These lectures will be given by the Professors of that institution,—Dr. Playfair, Mr. E. Forbes, Mr. Robert Hunt, Mr. Ramsay, Mr. W. W. Smyth, and Dr. Percy; and it is intended that they shall be of the most practical—and hence, it is hoped, useful—character. Any working man applying at the Museum in Jernyn Street, and proving himself to be an artisan, may, on payment of 6d. as a registration fee, receive a ticket for this course of six lectures.—We learn that this course is to be regarded as an experiment for testing the value which the class of men for whom the lectures are intended may set on this movement for their benefit. We hope that every success will attend so well directed an effort on the part of a government institution.

A Correspondent writes to us as follows:—"Mr. Robert Cole, known to antiquaries by his 'curious' collections, and his willingness to allow them to be seen for any literary or antiquarian purpose, informs me by letter that he possesses a list of Dr. Combe's works in Combe's own handwriting, and that the Lyttelton Letters are included in his list. Combe was a great manufacturer in his time; being the author as well of 'Letters supposed to have passed between Sterne and Eliza' as of 'Letters of an Italian Nun to an English Gentleman.' There can be no doubt that the Lyttelton Letters were the work of Combe,—though Combe's veracity has been called in question by those who knew him."

The original Rupert and Fairfax Papers, purchased by Mr. Bentley, and published by him, under the superintendence of Mr. Eliot Warburton, Mr. Johnson, and Mr. Robert Bell, have been catalogued for sale by private contract by Messrs. Sotheby & Wilkinson. The letters and papers are upwards of fifteen hundred in number, and the price asked is 1,500l. These papers we should be glad to see in some public and accessible repository. A worse fate could not befall them than the Stowe MSS. have found in the more than Bramah-locked repositories of Lord Ashburnham. A resurrection followed by an immediate sepulture in another and more confined dungeon is, indeed, tantalizing.

Mr. Frederick Hill, now Assistant Secretary to the Postmaster General, is understood to be engaged on a work containing the result of his long experience in his former office as Inspector of Prisons.

The negotiations for the removal of the iron railing in front of St. Paul's go on very slowly. Our readers are aware that the Dean and Chapter have offered to remove the encumbrance if the approaches are improved:—and they have now defined a little more exactly what they mean by an improvement of the approaches. They express their opinion that the real obstruction of the public traffic arises from the narrow opening of Ludgate Hill and the street beyond it; and they declare that until this obstruction is removed they will refuse to treat any further, or even to see the Com-

missioners of Sewers on the subject. Thus, the clearance seems almost as far off as ever.

The Great Western Railway Company have at length found out the use of the electric telegraph, and have made preparations for completing the system along their line. Our readers are aware that we have often referred to the absurdity of our Government being placed in the position of having no means of direct communication with our chief naval station,—the dockyard at Plymouth; and have frequently urged the Admiralty to step in and remedy so glaring an inconvenience. Reason and precaution have at length prevailed,—and in a few days the telegraph will be open throughout the line.

The *Daily News* states that experiments have just been made on the Paris and Lyons Railway for the application of electro-magnetism to locomotives. The report goes on to say that the apparatus prepared for the purpose was applied to an exceedingly large locomotive, and succeeded perfectly, first on a level, and then on an ascent of thirteen millèmes, the steepest in fact of the line. It was feared that difficulties would arise from the smoothness of the wheels on the rails,—but no inconvenience was perceptible from that circumstance.

An obvious improvement in our system of internal communication would be, the establishment of a post-office at each of the great railway stations in London. Nothing but the inertia of office could have withheld this boon from the public so long. The branch offices are distributed on the principle of general convenience, and, as a matter of course, they are most numerous in the most frequented streets. But within a few years the railway stations have grown as public as Oxford Street or the Strand. More than ten million persons pass through the doors of the London Bridge railway station in a year. King's Cross, Waterloo Road, Euston Square and Paddington are only a little less crowded. Many persons out of these millions would no doubt find it convenient to be able to post letters at the stations—still more so to receive them. A *poste restante* at such points would be invaluable, and especially at those stations most distant from St. Martin's-le-Grand.—A memorial is in process of signature for presentation to the Marquis of Clanricarde, praying for the establishment of a box at London Bridge. But while the subject is under consideration, it may be found desirable to extend the advantages asked for at one station to the rest, with such additions—particularly the *poste restante*—as shall appear practically available for the service.

The example of the Leicester Square Soup Kitchen and Hospice is producing the results which we ventured to hope for it when noticing its Christmas dinner to the poor. At a meeting held in the London Tavern—the Lord Mayor being in the chair—it has been resolved to establish City branches of the institution, and several tradesmen have already offered to contribute towards their support.

Our contemporaries have been frequent and loud in their notes of triumph at the discovery of "a mummy" among the foundations of the New Houses of Parliament—and on the curious results to the science of archaeology which the unrolling of his ceremonial cloths are likely to effect. We cannot join in the note of exultation. The discovery is valuable simply for the curious decorated wooden crozier found in the hands of the corpse; and with the removal of this to some safe repository—the old Dean or Canon of St. Stephen's Chapel will, we trust, be restored at once to his native earth. The crozier should find a place in the Mediæval Rooms at the British Museum—if the Trustees and keepers of that already over-crowded institution can find room for any more curiosities. The progress of the Mediæval Rooms seems to keep pace with the progress of the Printed Catalogue of books.

The eight days' sale of the very curious collection of books, prints, manuscripts and pictures of the late Charles Kirkpatrick Sharpe commenced at Edinburgh on Friday last. The catalogue is provokingly brief,—and some good bargains will doubtless be made from it, though books generally realize good prices in the Edinburgh market. Among the rari-

ties may be mentioned a volume which belonged to the Regent Murray, with his name on the boards and his arms and motto; a book which belonged to Mary, Queen of Scots, with her initials and the royal arms of Scotland embossed on the sides; and Prince Charles Edward's copy of Cornwallis's Essays, with his initials in his own handwriting and his arms and initials embossed on the sides.

The Paris papers report the death, at sixty years of age, of the well-known chemist, John Nicholas Gannal,—distinguished especially for his researches in the art of embalming.

We have received the Report of the Committee—MM. Majendie, Louis and Londe—appointed by the French Academy of Medicine to examine a work by Dr. James Gillkrest, entitled, 'Is Yellow Fever contagious or not?' The reporters speak very highly of the industry and skill displayed by Dr. Gillkrest,—and adopt the conclusion at which he arrives with regard to the non-contagiousness of this disease. "The author," say they, "establishes by numerous well-selected and incontrovertible proofs that yellow fever is not contagious under any circumstances,—not even in the case of crowding in this disease, whether of the dead or of the living; that the removal of the individuals from the influence of the local causes which produce this affection is the fittest means of preventing its extension; and, lastly, that the cordons called sanitary and quarantine measures, far from arresting yellow fever, on the contrary favour its extension by combining the population within the influence of the local causes which give it birth." It may be hoped that with valuable testimony like this before them, our own and other Governments of Europe will lose no time in abandoning their oppressive quarantine regulations, at least as far as yellow fever is concerned. With regard to plague and other diseases, our quarantine laws are founded on a total misapprehension of the nature of the diseases which they are intended to provide against,—and as frequently do harm as good so far as the disease itself is concerned,—to say nothing of their inflicting great harm on commerce, and their being instruments of political oppression in the hands of despotic governments.

The Roman correspondence of the *Daily News* reports the discovery of a metallic scroll by the learned Father Marchi in the neighbourhood of the Catacombs beyond the Porta Latina, on which an inscription appears throwing some curious light on the superstitions of the ancient Romans and explanatory of certain obscure passages in the classic writers.—"Whilst watching the labours of some workmen employed in excavating," says our contemporary, "Father Marchi's attention was suddenly arrested by a mass of old lead thrown up amongst other rubbish; and as the archaeologist, like the sportsman, is always on the look-out for game, he lost no time in cleaning and examining the venerable metal,—which, on being unfolded, displayed remnants of a tolerably legible inscription. Father Marchi instantly bore the leaden document home, and set to work to decipher its contents and meaning. The result of his study is, that the inscription is a sort of invocation, addressed to the god Pluto, and destined to act as a countercharm against the incantation of a sorceress, by whose arts a youth named Lentulus, or Lentilius, had been cast under a spell. Some victim had probably been immolated to propitiate the infernal deity, and the request of the offerer deposited in the immediate vicinity of the altar. The orthography and style of the Latin, which is a metrical composition, authorize the supposition that it belongs to the republican period; and we have an example of the prevalent superstition which gave rise to it in Horace's seventeenth Epode, where the poet introduces a suppliant acknowledging the power of the sorceress Canidia, and entreating to be freed from her incantations:—

Jamjam efficaci do manus scientie:
Supplex et oro regna per Proserpinam, &c."

One of the features of ancient London revived for the Great Exhibition was, the company of shoe-blacks. The revival was, an experiment connected with one of the great questions of our day—the disposal of the abandoned children of wretchedness

and crime who infest our streets. The poor boys were of various sorts. Many were orphans—some were sailor-boys—not a few had been starving in the streets for years—almost all were homeless, ragged, ignorant, dirty little wretches for whom no one seemed to care. They were, in truth, exact samples of that large class of young castaways from which the criminal population is continually recruited in strength, and for which the ragged school was especially designed. To deal with the case of these youngsters has ever been a serious difficulty. The usual doors of labour appear closed against them. If the humane set them to chop wood or break stones, it was objected to as an infringement of the rights of free labour. Happily, the shoe-black was a defunct personage in London streets,—and, with the exception of a colony of French boys who established themselves in the park, but were removed by the police for bad conduct, no one could complain of the new aspirants for public favour trenching on ground already occupied. At first the boys had much to contend against. They were new to the work, and felt awkward in their fine clothes. Idle boys mocked at them, pulled their aprons, and put dirt into their pots. Portly gentlemen posed them with strange questions. Elderly ladies told them they would all come to be lord mayors. Costermongers called them young cardinals and red republicans, in allusion to their red jackets. Foreigners offered them curious coins for change. Old soldiers with only one leg insisted on paying half price,—and sometimes shabby people would say, off hand, that they would pay next time. Still, the boys stood their ground, and held manful possession of the points which they had seized at first. A few of them, it is true, fell into temptation, like other mortals, owing to success. Kosuth's visit to Guildhall was a sort of Capua to some. That day people trod unanimously on each other's toes, and the industrial little colony earned a large sum of money. A few of the urchins could not bear up calmly against this flood-tide of prosperity: they feasted on magnificent pies; they steamed to Greenwich and gorged themselves with white bait; they made themselves ill with cheap cigars; they shook themselves with rides on Hampstead donkeys. But these offenders were exceptions to the rule, and they were discharged for bad conduct. Nearly all the boys saved money, which was kept for them in a little bank established by the committee. One had 71. put by,—several had 51. each. Many a widowed mother was supported by her son's blacking brush. Seven of the lads spent their savings on an outfit for Australia, and are now in that colony; fourteen others obtained situations in families. One has bound himself apprentice to the Watermen's Company; another relieved his parents from a distress for rent; and a father was enabled by the same means to come up to London and see the boy from whom he had been separated for years!—Such is the result of this little experiment, as told by one of the committee. Who will not wish the further trial good speed?

NOW OPEN.—SKETCHES AND DRAWINGS, at the OLD WATER COLOUR GALLERY, 5, Pall Mall East, containing amongst other important works, CHOICE SPECIMENS by Turner, R.A., Mulready, R.A., Roberts, R.A., Stanfield, R.A., Webster, R.A., Landseer, R.A., Hart, R.A., John Martin, R.A., Catermole, John Lewis, Cooper Fielding, Friis, A.R., Ward, A.R.A., Egg, A.R.A., Hunt, Leitch, Topham, Tenniel, Friis, Haas, Arncliffe, Duncan, Ansell, Clint, Cross, Edie, Gurney, Goodall, Richardson, Frost, &c. Open from Ten till dusk.—Admission, 1s. SAMUEL STEPHEN, Esq., Gallery, 5, Pall Mall East.

THE ARCHITECTURAL EXHIBITION (with the Collection of Materials, Patents, Processes, &c. connected with Architecture) is NOW OPEN from Ten till dusk, at the Ferial Galleries, opposite the Polytechnic Institution, Regent Street.—Admission, 1s., including a Catalogue. Season Tickets, including a Catalogue, admitting the holder from the 10th of January to the 15th of March, 2s. Free Tickets may be had for Workmen, on application at the Galleries.

JAS. EDMESTON, Jun., } Hon.
JAS. FERGUSON, F.R.S., } Secy.
PATRON—H.R.H. PRINCE ALBERT.
ROYAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.—LECTURE BY Dr. Buchner on the PHILOSOPHY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.—LECTURE by J. H. Pepper, Esq., on CHEMICAL EXPERIMENTS, beginning with the variable Conditions of OXYGEN and PHOSPHORUS.—LECTURE on STEAM WARD'S NEW SUBMARINE LAMP.—Lecture on NUMEROUS PRIZES, MODELS, WORDS OF ART, SPECIMENS OF MANUFACTURES, &c. from the Great Exhibition, explained by Mr. Criepe.—OPTICAL EFFECTS IN DISSOLVING VIEWS, by Goodall, Esq.—DICTIONARY, &c.—DIVING and DIVING BELLS, &c.—Admission, 1s.; Schools and Children under ten years of age, Half-price.—Open daily from Eleven till Five, and every evening, except Saturday, from Seven till half-past Ten.

PATRON—H.R.H. PRINCE ALBERT.

ROYAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.—ANNUAL SUBSCRIBERS, HOLDERS OF FAMILY TICKETS, AND SUBSCRIBERS TO THE READING ROOMS, 5, Cavendish Square, are invited to inspect the VALUABLE DEPOSITS from the GREAT EXHIBITION, just added, to many of which Medals have been awarded.

SCIENTIFIC

SOCIETIES.

ROYAL.—Jan. 15.—Col. Sabine, V.P., in the chair.—C. Wheatstone, Esq., delivered the Bakerian Lecture, "Contributions to the Physiology of Vision."—Part II. 'On some remarkable, and hitherto unobserved, Phenomena of Binocular Vision.'—The first part of these researches was communicated to the Royal Society in 1838, and published in the 'Philosophical Transactions' for that year.—The second part commences with an account of some remarkable illusions which occur when the usual relations that subsist between the magnitude of the pictures on the retina and the degree of inclination of the optic axes are disturbed. Under the ordinary circumstances of vision, when an object changes its distance from the observer, the magnitude of the pictures on the retina increases at the same time that the inclination of the optic axes becomes greater, and *vice versa*, and the perceived magnitude of the object remains the same. The author wished to ascertain what would take place by causing the optic axes to assume every degree of convergence while the magnitude of the pictures on the retina remains the same; and on the other hand, the phenomena which would be exhibited by maintaining the inclination of the optic axes constant while the magnitude of the pictures on the retina continually changes. To effect these purposes, he constructed a modification of his reflecting stereoscope; in this instrument two similar pictures are placed, on moveable arms, each opposite its respective mirror; these arms move round a common centre in such a manner that, however they are placed, the reflected image of each picture in the mirrors remains constantly at the same distance from the eye by which it is viewed; the pictures are also capable of sliding along these arms, so that they may be simultaneously brought nearer to, or removed farther from, the mirrors. When the pictures remain at the same distance and the arms are removed round their centre, the reflected images, while their distances from the eyes remain unchanged, are displaced, so that a different inclination of the optic axes is required to cause them to coincide. When the arms remain in the same positions and the pictures are brought simultaneously nearer the mirrors, the reflected images are not displaced, and they always coincide with the same convergence of the optic axes; but the magnitude of the pictures on the retina becomes greater as the pictures approach. The experimental results afforded by this apparatus, so far as regards the perception of magnitude, are the following: the pictures being placed at such distances, and the arms moved to such positions, that the binocular image appears of its natural magnitude and at its proper distance, on the arms being moved so as to occasion the optic axes to converge less, the image appears larger, and on their being moved so as to cause the optic axes to converge more, the image appears less; thus, while the magnitude of the pictures on the retina remains constantly the same, the perceived magnitude of the object varies, through a very considerable range, with every degree of the convergence of the optic axes. The pictures and arms being again placed so that the magnitude and distance of the object appear the same as usual, and the arms being fixed so that the convergence of the optic axes does not change; while the pictures are brought nearer the mirrors the perceived magnitude of the object increases, and it decreases when they are removed farther off; thus, while the inclination of the optic axes remains constant, the perceived magnitude of the object varies with every change in the magnitude of the pictures on the retina. After this the author takes into consideration the disturbances produced in our perception of distance under the same circumstances, and concludes that the facts thus experimentally ascertained regarding the perceptions of magnitude and distance, render necessary

some modification in the prevalent theory regarding them.—The author next reverts to the stereoscope and its effects. He recommends the original reflecting stereoscope as the most efficient instrument, not only for investigating the phenomena of binocular vision, but also for exhibiting the greatest variety of stereoscopic effects as it admits of every required adjustment, and pictures of any size may be placed in it. A very portable form of this instrument is then described, and also a refracting stereoscope suited for daguerreotypes and small pictures not much exceeding the width between the eyes. In the latter instrument the pictures are placed side by side and viewed through two refracting prisms of small angle which displace the pictures laterally, that on the right side towards the left, and that on the left side towards the right, so that they appear to occupy the same place. When the first part of these investigations was published the photographic art was unknown, and the illustrations of the stereoscope were confined to outline and shaded perspective drawings; when, however, in the succeeding year, Talbot and Daguerre made their processes known, Mr. Wheatstone was enabled to obtain binocular Talbotypes and Daguerreotypes of statues, buildings, and even portraits of living persons, which, when presented in the stereoscope, no longer appeared as pictures, but as solid models of the objects from which they were taken. This application was first announced in 1841.—The two projections of an object, seen by the two eyes, are different according to the distance at which it is viewed; they become less dissimilar as that distance is greater, and, consequently, as the convergence of the optic axes becomes less. To a particular distance belongs a specific dissimilarity between the two pictures, and it is a point of interest to determine what would take place on viewing a pair of stereoscopic pictures with a different inclination of the optic axes than that for which they were intended. The result of this inquiry is, that if a pair of very dissimilar pictures is seen when the optic axes are nearly parallel, the distances between the near and more remote points of the object appear exaggerated; and if, on the other hand, a pair of pictures slightly dissimilar is seen when the optic axes converge very much, the appearance is that of a bas-relief. As no disagreeable or incongruous effect is obviously produced when two pictures, intended for a nearer convergence of the optic axes, are seen when the eyes are parallel or nearly so, we are able to avail ourselves of the means of augmenting the perceived magnitude of the binocular image mentioned at the commencement of this abstract. For this purpose the pictures, placed near the eyes, are caused to coincide when the optic axes are nearly parallel; and the diverging rays proceeding from the near pictures, are rendered parallel by lenses of short focal distance placed before the mirrors or prisms of the stereoscope.—Some additional observations were next brought forward respecting those stereoscopic phenomena which the author, in his first memoir, called "conversions of relief." They may be produced in three different ways:—1st, by transposing the picture from one to the other; 2ndly, by reflecting each picture separately, without transposition; and, 3rdly, by inverting the pictures to each eye separately. The converse figure differs from the normal figure in this circumstance, that those points which appear most distant in the latter are the nearest in the former, and *vice versa*.—An account is then given of the construction and effects of an instrument for producing the conversion of the relief of any solid object to which it is directed. As this instrument conveys to the mind false perceptions of all external objects, the author calls it a Pseudoscope. It consists of two reflecting prisms, placed in a frame, with adjustments, so that, when applied to the eyes, each eye may separately see the reflected image of the projection which usually falls on that eye. This is not the case when the reflection of an object is seen in a mirror; for then, not only are the projections separately reflected, but they are also transposed from one eye to the other, and therefore the conversion of relief does not take place. The pseudoscope being directed to an object, and adjusted so that the object shall appear of its proper size and at its

usual distance, the distances of all other objects are inverted; all nearer objects appear more distant, and all more distant objects nearer. The conversion of relief of an object consists in the transposition of the distances of the points which compose it. With the pseudoscope we have a glance, as it were, into another visible world, in which external objects and our internal perceptions have no longer their habitual relations with each other. Among the remarkable illusions it occasions, the following were mentioned:—The inside of a teacup appears a solid convex body; the effect is more striking if there are painted figures within the cup. A china vase, ornamented with coloured flowers in relief, appears to be a vertical section of the interior of the vase, with painted hollow impressions of the flowers. A small terrestrial globe appears a concave hemisphere; when the globe is turned on its axis, the appearance and disappearance of different portions of the map on its concave surface has a very singular effect. A bust regarded in front becomes a deep hollow mask; when regarded *en profile*, the appearance is equally striking. A framed picture hung against a wall appears as if imbedded in a cavity made in the wall. An object placed before the wall of a room, appears behind the wall, and as if an aperture of the proper dimensions had been made to allow it to be seen; if the object be illuminated by a candle, its shadow appears as far before the object as it actually is behind it.—The communication concludes with a variety of details relating to the conditions on which these phenomena depend, and with a description of some other methods of producing the pseudoscopic appearances.

GEOGRAPHICAL.—Jan. 12.—Sir R. I. Murchison, President, in the chair.—The Chevalier I. Oliviera de Carvalho, W. Devoy, A. A. Weston, J. W. Parker and A. Greville, Esqrs., were elected Fellows.—The papers read were—

'Ascent of Orizava,' by E. Thornton, Esq., F.R.G.S.—As I sent to England last year an account of the ascent I made of the Volcano of Popocatepetl in company with some other persons, which the Geographical Society lately did me the honour of causing to be read at one of their meetings, I was very desirous of personally inspecting the Peak of Orizava, a mountain well known to all sailors who have visited the Gulf of Mexico, from which its eternal snows are clearly seen, and whose height has been frequently taken from the sea, but never from the summit. With this object I started on the 8th of last month for the nearest habitation to the foot of the mountain, which is an establishment for smelting silver produced in some neighbouring mines, called "El Paso Nacional de la Plata." The first part of my journey was to the town and fortress of Perote, a road so well known to all who have visited this country, being the high road from Mexico to Vera Cruz, that it requires no description. There I took horse and went nearly due south for fourteen leagues to the smelting establishment. The country is not picturesque, being generally flat and barren; but it is eminently curious, and would, I should think, be exceedingly interesting to any one well versed in the favourite science of the day, Geology. Though the plains are barren, it is rather from want of cultivation than from any intrinsic defect; for like volcanic soils generally, this is in itself extremely fertile, and though there is a great scarcity and in some parts an entire absence of water during the dry months, still the dews are so heavy as to answer all the purposes of rain, so far as cultivation is concerned. In traversing these plains, my attention was several times attracted by what were evidently extinct craters, the lower lip on the level of the plain, so that one came upon them suddenly, almost without being aware of it, and the other lip considerably higher. A curious fact connected with all the craters I know in this country, and for which I do not pretend to account, is that the lower lip is always to the south and the higher to the north, as if the eruptions had generally been rather towards the south than in any other direction. The sides of these craters are almost universally nearly perpendicular; some are dry and afford fine pasture for the cattle in the

bottom, who find their way down the sides by zigzag paths cut in the rock by the peasants. Others are lakes, the depth of which I cannot say, but it is evidently very considerable. I understand from undoubted authorities that the temperature of the water is much more variable than can be accounted for by the state of the atmosphere. That it should be sometimes as salt as the sea and at others nearly fresh, may be explained by the salt which sinks to the bottom in calm weather being stirred up by the wind. Upon distillation it appears that about a tenth part of the water is *silice*; the quantity of this substance is evident from the innumerable petrifications found all along the banks of these lakes; the water constantly rippling upon the bulrushes, Indian fig-trees and other plants, leaves a coat of stone which increases daily and at length kills the plant, which decays within and leaves a perfect mould of all its parts. Besides the salt it has a peculiar bitter taste; indeed, the name of one of these lakes is "Alchichica," the Indian for "bitter water." It has so powerfully aperient an effect, that the natives never allow their horses to drink of it before beginning a journey. The Indians about there are all fully aware of its unwholesomeness, and nothing will induce them to drink it. As it was a very warm day, I went to a hut to ask for a glass of water, but was told that such a delicacy did not exist, and that in that region man, woman, and child from their earliest infancy drank nothing but "Pulque," the standard beverage of the country extracted from the aloe. The European who finds it difficult to bring his taste to the "pulque," and to submit to the entire privation of water, is in that region obliged to send for it a distance of seven or eight leagues. The largest of the craters that I saw must have been about five miles in circumference. The lakes are inhabited by innumerable wild duck, and by an animal of which I was unable to obtain more than a description, but which I cannot help thinking is the same as the Proteo found in the cave of Istria,—having the same six points to its crown and the same scale over its blind eyes. The Indians will tell you that there is a whirlpool in the middle of these lakes;—in one of them, to the middle of which I went, I found nothing of the sort; but the assertion is so positive among them, that I am inclined to think there is an occasional commotion in the water there, caused by some volcanic action below.

In the neighbourhood of these lakes there are some precipitous and rugged mountains, evidently volcanic, known by the name of "Las derrumbadas" (tumbled down) and well they deserve it:—for it would seem as if they had been split from top to bottom, and one side had fallen down, the exposed face being perpendicular. In many parts of these mountains sulphureous smoke still issues from the crevices of the rocks. In the neighbourhood, veins of silver are discovered, which, as long as they last, are very profitable; but even there the miner is confounded in his calculations by former convulsions:—and when he flatters himself that a rich vein is likely to continue for some distance, he finds it suddenly cut off by a gigantic wall of porphyry, which seems to have been pushed up through the ancient formation, and for ever puts an end to the vein of his hopes. The substance of what seem to be the primitive rocks is limestone, in which are imbedded a great number of shells, and whose strata are at an angle of about 30°; but even these are frequently disfigured by a crust of pumice stone, sometimes of three to four hundred feet in thickness, and interrupted by immense masses of lava and other volcanic matter. The plain about here is surrounded by mountains, and has no apparent outlet for the water; but though an immense quantity of rain falls during the summer months, yet it all disappears in a few hours, by means, as is supposed, of some of the extinct craters.

I was obliged to remain at the Paso Nacional for some days, being unable to obtain a guide and unwilling to attempt the ascent alone. I had set my mind upon a Frenchman, who within a few days previous had ascended the Peak of Orizava twice, up to its very summit,—an exploit which he is believed to have been the first ever to have performed. His name is Alexandre Doignon, and he indeed deserves to be mentioned for having

twice undertaken so perilous and difficult an expedition entirely by himself and over ground of which he was perfectly ignorant. The first time, he was accompanied part of the way by several others, but none of them succeeded in reaching the summit except himself. On his return to the plain, the Mexicans in the neighbouring villages laughed so much at the idea of his having reached the summit, which was supposed impracticable, that he offered, if they would make him a flag, to carry it up and plant it on the top. They made him one, five yards long and two wide, which, together with a flagstaff 3½ yards long, made out of a tree still green and heavy, and a crowbar, he carried up the mountain and victoriously planted on its highest point. When I arrived at the Paso, I saw it still flying there. On his return, he was received at the principal town of the district by all the authorities headed by a band of music, and was feted on all sides. A letter from me interrupted him in these gaieties, and on the afternoon of the 14th of April, he and I and a young German belonging to the smelting establishment, started together on horseback for the limits of vegetation. The weather was far from promising, for it was pouring rain; and not feeling quite so strong as when I ascended Popocatepetl, I did not anticipate entire success. A ride of about three hours, thick forests, along the edge of a frightfully precipitate ravine, brought us to a hut close to the limits of vegetation, at a place called "El Puerto," well known to all the contrabandistas of the country, being the path they make use of for their smuggling operations from the coast. The boiling water point at this place was 190° Fahrenheit, indicating a height of 11,395 feet. At five o'clock on the morning of the 15th we started again on horseback, being myself armed with a long-pointed stick, a barometer and two thermometers and a pair of cricket shoes. We were not able to avail ourselves of our horses for more than about two miles, which brought us to an elevation of above 12,000 feet. Here we dismounted, and began the ascent in good earnest at exactly six o'clock. The first part of the path was very steep and over loose stones and masses of rock which had tumbled from above; it was exceedingly fatiguing, especially as the large stones occasionally slipped from under our feet. We were further incommoded by a furious wind, which came driving down from the top of the mountain, made our limbs ache, and impeded our respiration so much that every time we stopped to take breath, we were obliged to turn our backs to the wind. After about an hour of this painful tumbling about, we got to the permanent snow line, which is very considerably lower on this mountain than at Popocatepetl. Snow line it can hardly be called, for the mountain is one mass of ice, with a covering of not more than two inches of snow in general; the sides are so steep that the snow very soon blows off and is melted; in fact, it is a solid glacier, with frequent enormous crevices, some as much as a hundred feet wide, others not more than a foot, but all so deep that one cannot see to the bottom of them. It is these that make the ascent more particularly dangerous; for they are frequently covered with a slight crust of ice, which gives way as soon as you put your foot upon it. When there is no snow the colour of the ice is different in these parts; but when there is a slight coat, as was the case when we were ascending, owing to the rain of the previous night, the only chance of safety is feeling one's way by striking the ground with one's stick. We were frequently obliged to make long circuits to avoid these fissures, but occasionally they so completely barred the path that we were forced to make the best of it, and go over the thin crust of ice as lightly and quickly as we could; but I confess the feeling was one I shall not easily forget. The wind continued to increase as we got higher; the clouds and fog were very thick, and view there was none, much to our disappointment; for when the atmosphere is clear the Peak of Orizava must command the most extensive and magnificent view in the Republic. Now and then we got a glimpse of the summit, the object of our ambition; but after having climbed till half-past eleven, the inclination having been constantly about 60°, we

found ourselves still about 1,000 feet from the top, and the inclination of the remainder about 75°. The wind was now so furious that we could hardly stand upright; the thermometer was at zero, and no person who has been accustomed to the lower mountains of Europe can imagine the bitter keenness of a furious wind at that temperature about 17,000 feet above the level of the sea. My German companion had already begun to spit blood, and I myself was much fatigued; so that we agreed, though with much regret, that it was not worth while incurring great risk for the sake of endeavouring to reach the top during such untoward weather. At this point I endeavoured to take the height but to my great vexation the barometer would not act, for some reason I have not yet been able to investigate. I did my utmost to light a spirit-lamp; but although I had contrived a shelter for it, the wind was so violent that I was unable to light anything, and consequently to obtain the boiling water-point. I cannot but think, however, comparing this with the ascent of Popocatepetl, that we were at least 17,000 feet above the level of the sea, and that the summit must be above 18,000 feet high, though it is generally considered lower than the former; but the height has never yet been calculated from the top. Certain it is, that the ascent of Popocatepetl is a mere trifle compared to this, both in danger and difficulty. From that point we plainly saw the smoke issuing from the top, and were told by Alexandre Doignon that it did not proceed from the crater, but from a crack in the rock itself at the very summit. He described the crater as being smaller than that of Popocatepetl, and stated that smoke issued from two or three points at the bottom of it, but with no great degree of activity; much more is seen to come from some undefined point in the very precipitous northern side of the mountain. The same peculiarity of the lower lip being to the south and the higher to the north maintains in this crater, and the crevices in its sides are filled with crystallized sulphur. During the few minutes we remained at this point, my hands became so benumbed that they did not recover their feeling till we reached the bottom, and then with great pain.

It was impossible to descend very rapidly on account of the fissures I have described above; and that the ice was very hard and slippery. As it was, I put my foot upon a thin crust and down I went, but luckily for me, only with one leg; for the crevice, though deep enough for anything, was not wide enough for both. According to the advice of the guide we had taken no spectacles with us; for, as he truly said, it was necessary to see the danger well in order to avoid it. Upon getting back to our hut, therefore, we congratulated ourselves a good deal upon feeling no disagreeable sensation in the eyes; I counted without my host:—for after returning to the Paso and dining, I began to feel great heat about my eyes and head. I went to bed, and half an hour afterwards the inflammation increased, and the pain was most intense,—cold water was my only remedy,—but so active was the inflammation that the wet rags dried up and became hot in three or four minutes:—for two days I was quite blind, and for two days more I did not dare to look at the light. Now I am tolerably well,—though there is still a cloud over distant objects. I believe I shall recover from this entirely, but I can conceive that the repetition of such an attack might do permanent injury to my sight. Of course, all the skin peeled off my face; but my German companion, though he did not suffer at all from his eyes, presented the most extraordinary appearance. His face was so swollen that his most intimate friend would not have recognized him. His cheeks were covered with large blisters filled with blood. This and my blindness I attribute principally to the keen wind which drove the fine frozen snow into our faces and eyes. It could not have been owing to our drinking anything strong, for we had forgotten to take even any wine with us.

Reports on Lieut. Pim's and Capt. Beaton's respective Expeditions in Search of Sir John Franklin.

Capt. Synge, R.E., read a paper 'On Communication between the Atlantic and Pacific by way of

British North America.'—The empire of Great Britain contains the best means of universal intercourse. The belt of the commerce of the world lies through British seas and territories; the best highway to the East is through British North America. The prominent points of its superiority are ten in number, five of universal, and five of especial national importance; viz., those which may be classed under the following heads:—Distance, Speed, Position, Salubrity, and Comprehensiveness, Inviolability, Connexion, Effects on British America, on Colonization in general, and the Maritime Power of England.

It is the shortest geographical distance.—Thus, by the several routes which have heretofore been considered to compete, the distances are:—

	To Sydney.	New Zealand.	Hong-Kong.
By Central America	12,491 13,920	63 to 65 days	11,336 12,763
By Cape of Good Hope	12,634 14,655	70 to 80 days	13,789 15,810
By Indian route	11,727 13,425	62 to 66 days	12,382 14,580
By the proposed route	11,600	44 days	11,050 1,0490

To Shanghai and to Japan the difference is greater by 400 and 1,400 miles respectively. It must be borne in mind, in making the comparison, that the shorter lines of geographical distance have in the cases of the older routes serious drawbacks to their adoption. This yet more favours the difference with respect to the British-American route. The Committee gave the preference to the Cape route. The figures are established by details from the Hydrographer's Office, the tenders of companies, the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, and by independent calculations.

2. *Speed.*—Assuming the terms of the tenders for establishing steam communication with Australia, without here entering upon the strong improbabilities that have been urged against their punctual fulfilment in at least some instances, they vary, as given in the above table, from 62 to 80 days. By the proposed route, the time would be 44 days, at the rates of 104 knots the hour by water, and 40 miles the hour by land;—or, with paddle-wheel steamers, at 8½ knots, and only 20 miles the hour by land, in 52 days. In each case, two full days are allowed for coaling in the Pacific. These rates are less than those of steamers actually plying upon the Atlantic. The saving of time to ports shown to be still nearer by the proposed route is, of course, even greater, in the same proportion.

3. *Position.*—The position of the route, with regard to trade winds and great-circle sailing, increases its advantages to sailing vessels and to auxiliary screw vessels beyond measure. Thus, while to and from Vancouver's Island the voyages to any port can at least be made on a wind, and the distance is not increased; the sailing distance to Sydney, by Panama, becomes 15,848 miles, and by the Cape of Good Hope, 18,566 miles. To China, by Panama, 15,760; by the Cape of Good Hope, 14,530 miles. The Indian route is applicable to the carriage of freight, because of expenses, transshipments, and climate. These figures are supported by details similar to those quoted above.

4. *Salubrity.*—The proposed British-American route stands alone in this respect, both with regard to the health of man, and the condition of products conveyed by it. Tropical heats, transshipments, and lengthened sea-voyages are, we know, destructive to the latter; and British America is as well known to be healthy as Panama is notoriously the reverse.

5. *Comprehensiveness.*—The British-American route alone comprises every kind of communication. By the electric telegraph, 3,000 miles of the distance are at once annihilated, and Sydney, New Zealand, China, and Japan virtually brought within 8,600, 8,058, 7,490, and 6,090 miles respectively. From what has been said under the heads of Distance, Speed, and Salubrity, it is clear that for all passengers, postal arrangements, and

products, the route is most comprehensive and most eligible. The more the value of time becomes appreciated by us, both in the use of telegraphs, of steam-merchants, quick sailing-vessels, and quick sailors, the less likely are we to suffer from the severe competition of the United States, whose watchword and the secret of whose success is "celerity." The route is shown, in the carriage of all merchandise, to be also the most economical by reference to the figures of Mr. Asa Whitney, familiar through his letters and papers read before the Society. The route now advocated is the great original one, being that of Sir Alexander Mackenzie, its discoverer and planner, who, even in his day (1785), laid before us its importance, and briefly sketched its wide results. The most singular feature which marks the wide comprehensiveness of the route is, that an uninterrupted water communication of the largest size can be established from ocean to ocean. This is an important fact, as the physical features connected with it, and which render it practicable, have this immediate effect of enabling the whole country to be almost simultaneously accessible to the settler, workman, and traveller. The details of this subject must, however, be necessarily reserved for future papers. The largest scale of improvement is desirable, and works of the magnitude required can be executed, not indeed on account of the union of the extremities, but because of the results of local development connected with more extended interests. The development of the water route would virtually place the whole interior of British America upon both the Atlantic and Pacific sea-boards.

6. *Inviolability.*—A condition deemed sufficiently important to be made one of the four primary ones required by the Committee of the House of Commons. It is obvious that no route can be compared in this respect with one which may most strictly be said to lie through British seas and British territories. But an independent means of approach would largely increase the security of the Eastern routes by the Mediterranean. It would diminish the temptations to intrigues against our Indian power, and comparatively destroy the hopefulness of the success of any open attack. With whatever route a comparison may be instituted, these advantages are yet enhanced by the contract.

7. *Connexion.*—of which the value has been so much esteemed as to have been pressed even before a certain measure of time, speed and distance. The proposed route essentially fosters the most complete intercommunication and the most advantageous natural connexion. Both by direction and rapidity it would bring the now most isolated but yet most densely populated regions of Asia into contact with Europe. Every land whose shores are washed by the Pacific would be brought within the active influence of the life thrown into that ocean, and the commerce of a new empire; a new empire added to the world, a new colonial empire added to Great Britain, would be created both with Europe and with Asia and all the island continents of the Pacific. Connexion the central American routes establishes none; none, at least, in the least advantageous to Great Britain, but rather prejudicial. The Cape route unites but little that absolutely depends on its adoption for its intercourse. The Indian route forms, indeed, part of the same connexion, but it is a mere postal route, or little more.

The 8th, 9th and 10th heads—the Effects of the proposed Route on British America, on Colonization in general, and on the Maritime Power of England,—are obviously exclusively the characteristics of the proposed British-American route. They are not geographical in their details, but are yet essential to a complete representation of its features.

By it,—and no other route could accomplish this—by it, British America would be colonized, and the present desolate condition of that country be removed for ever. The most complete and brilliant development would replace its present death-like state. Who can grasp the consequent effects on the whole colonial empire and the whole colonial policy of Great Britain? Who shall

sketch that naval maritime activity by which British maritime supremacy would undoubtedly be established and maintained? Thus has the best mode of communicating with that portion of the earth of which the shores are washed by the Pacific been dealt with most briefly under the heads enumerated. Other communications are not, however, valueless because they may connect the same extremities less advantageously. It would be an interesting subject to trace the proper relative use and bearing of those which have furnished the data for comparison in the present instance. That which, however, is more immediately concerned in continuance of the present subject is, the detail of that portion of the route which lies in the territories of British America. It exhibits many features of the highest geographical interest, and so wonderful an adaptation of means to the ends proposed as to give more than redoubled force to every argument deduced from inquiry into the main features of the entire communication.

The President announced that subscriptions towards defraying the expenses of Capt. Beaton's Expedition through Behring's Straits would be received at the apartments of the Society.

GEOLOGICAL.—Dec. 17.—W. Hopkins, Esq., the President, in the chair.—The President read a paper 'On the Causes of the Changes of Climate at different Geological Periods.'—The author first considers the influence on the earth's superficial temperature of a central heat, supposed to be the remains of a former and very much greater heat which has been gradually diminishing during some indefinite period of time. The effect on the superficial temperature due to this cause may have been formerly of any amount, but is now reduced to within one-twentieth of a degree of Fahrenheit of that ultimate limit to which it would be reduced in an indefinite period of time, supposing the external conditions under which the earth is now placed, such as the amount of radiation from the sun and stars, and the state of the atmosphere, to remain as at present. Poisson has calculated that it would require 100,000 millions of years to reduce the present temperature by about one-fortieth of a degree of Fahrenheit. It is probable, therefore, that many millions of years must have elapsed since the central heat can have elevated the earth's superficial temperature by a single degree. The author also explained that any very sensible increase of superficial temperature from this cause must have been attended with an exceedingly rapid rate of increase of the internal temperature in descending below the earth's surface. It is only, however, to the more remote geological periods that we can refer for any very sensible change in the climatal conditions of our globe due to this cause. Such changes, also, must manifestly be continually from a higher to a lower temperature; and, therefore, we must appeal to some other cause to account for such oscillations of temperature as those of the glacial period. Poisson suggested that the present internal temperature of our globe might not be due to its primitive heat, but to the fact of the solar system having passed through some region of stellar space of which the temperature, owing to stellar radiation, is much greater than that in which it is now placed. Without professing to say how far this cause may have influenced the climatal conditions of the earth at former remote periods, the author shows that, reasoning from all we know respecting the relative positions of the stars and the probable motion of the solar system, this cause cannot have produced a change so great as that which must have taken place during the glacial epoch, at a time so recent as we have reason to believe that epoch to have been. The author next proceeds to examine the effects of changes in the disposition of land and sea, and of the consequent changes in the direction of ocean-currents. The map of isothermal lines, recently published by MM. Humboldt and Dove, enables us to estimate the influence of the existing configuration of land and sea, and that of currents superinduced thereby, and thus we are enabled to estimate approximately the effects of like causes in different hypothetical cases. The isothermal lines have thus been constructed by the author for the following cases:—

1. When the progress of the gulf-stream into the North Sea is supposed to be intercepted by land connecting the northern point of Scotland with Iceland, and that island with the continent of Greenland.—2. The next case assumes the elevation of the land now constituting western Europe to a sufficient height to produce such glaciers as those the effects of which we recognize in that region as having been produced during the glacial period.—3. The northern portion of the Atlantic is supposed to be converted into dry land by the elevation of its bed.—4. In the last case, the absence of the gulf-stream with its influences upon the western coast of Europe is assumed, together with the submergence beneath the sea of a large portion of northern and western Europe. In this part of his memoir the author restricts himself chiefly to the consideration of these cases with the view of ascertaining how the cold of the glacial epoch can be best accounted for, together with its consequent glaciers of sufficient magnitude to produce the phenomena now so universally attributed to them. Having constructed the isothermal lines in any of the above cases for January and July, he deduces the mean annual temperature at any proposed place. He can then calculate the height at that place of an imaginary surface in the atmosphere, the temperature of which, at every point, is equal to 32° Fahr. This imaginary surface must of course meet the surface of the earth along a line for every point of which the mean annual temperature is that just mentioned; and any line upon this imaginary surface (as that in which it intersects the surface of a mountain) is called a *line of 32° Fahr.*—In estimating the height of this line, the author adopts the results given by Humboldt and others as to the decrease of temperature for an assigned increase of height in ascending from the earth's surface. The next step is, to ascertain the position of the snow-line with reference to the line of 32°. In the tropical regions the former line is below the latter; in the higher latitudes it is generally above it. Wherever the difference between the summer and winter temperature is small, the snow line has a comparatively low position with respect to the line of 32°. By means of these and other inferences, drawn from existing cases, we are able to estimate approximately the relative positions of these two lines in our hypothetical cases, and thus, knowing by calculation the height of the line of 32° at any proposed place, we can estimate that of the snow-line at the same place. Now, it appears by observation that nearly all the well-known glaciers, of sufficient magnitude to be considered of the first order, descend about 4,000 or 5,000 feet below the snow line, and that the smaller glaciers descend only to smaller distances below that line. We are thus enabled in any hypothetical case to form an approximate estimate of the distance which a glacier would probably descend beneath its snow line; or, knowing the height of that line by the means above stated, we can thus estimate the height above the sea level to which the lower extremity of the glacier would probably descend. The author then proceeds to apply these principles to cases 2, 3, and 4 above mentioned, and to determine the conditions under which glaciers, sufficiently large to produce certain observed glacial phenomena, would exist in Western Europe. In case 2 it would be necessary that that region should be elevated into a mountainous range of not less than 10,000 feet in height; a conclusion which the author considers utterly inadmissible, on account of the entire absence of all independent geological evidence in support of it. The hypothesis of case 3 he rejects for a similar reason. Case 4 is then discussed at considerable length. It is shown that glaciers of the required magnitude would in that case exist in the region of Western Europe, if in addition to the absence of the gulf-stream we suppose the existence of a cold current from the north of a moderately refrigerating influence. This latter current, however, might not be essential. The entire diversion of the present gulf-stream into some other channel, which is required by this view of the subject, would be the necessary consequence of that submergence of the North American continent, of

which we have such conclusive evidences during the glacial period; for in such case the current which sets into the Gulf of Mexico would manifestly continue in its north-westerly direction along the present valley of the Mississippi and the range of the Rocky Mountains to discharge itself into the Atlantic Ocean. This would correspond to the glacial period on this side the Atlantic; but along the new course of the gulf-stream there would be a much warmer climate than at present,—and that such a climate has there existed at a recent geological epoch seems to be abundantly proved by vegetable remains which have been found between Hudson's Bay and the Rocky Mountains, precisely in the line which the warmer current would take. Before the depression of the North American continent was sufficient to admit the gulf-stream to flow freely to the Arctic Ocean, the northern part of that continent would be converted into an Arctic sea, and this would correspond to the first part of the glacial drift period in that region. On the gradual elevation of the land after its greatest depression the north-western course of the gulf-stream would be again arrested, and the northern portion of the American continent would be again converted into an Arctic sea. The temperature of the region of the eastern portion of North America would probably not be much affected by the alteration in the course of the gulf-stream, nor would it probably be very different from that which obtains at present along its eastern coasts. It may also be added, that the continued course of the gulf-stream into the Arctic Ocean would very probably generate a cold counter-current from the North Sea across the submerged portion of Europe, such as has been above alluded to. The author is anxious to direct the attention of geologists to this view of the subject, in the hope that it may be tested by such further observations as may bear more immediately upon it. It appears to him to satisfy better than any other theory the present known conditions of the great problem which the glacial epoch presents to us.

Jan. 7.—W. Hopkins, Esq., in the chair.—J. G. W. Watson, Esq., the Rev. C. Pritchard, J. Pheer, Esq., J. Hepburn, Esq., and T. R. Jones, Esq., were elected Fellows.—The following papers were read:—'Notice of the Discovery of Reptilian Foot-Tracks and Remains in the Old Red Sandstone of Morayshire,' by Capt. Brickenden.—'On the Telerpeton Elginense, a Fossil Reptile discovered in the Old Red Sandstone of Moray by Mr. Patrick Duff, and on supposed Fossil Ova of Batrachians in the Lower Devonian Shales of Forfarshire,' by Dr. Mantell.

ASIATIC.—Jan. 10.—Prof. H. H. Wilson, the Director, read a paper by R. T. H. Griffith, Esq., 'On the Figures of Indian Poetical Rhetoric, as illustrated in the Bhatti Kavya.' The work bearing this title is an epic poem composed in the silver age of Sanskrit literature, for the purpose of illustrating by examples the rules of Grammar, Poetry, and Rhetoric. Though written with this object, the poem also merits attention for its comparative antiquity, and for its classic purity and elegance of style, while at the same time it possesses great descriptive power and poetical merit. It consists of twenty-two books, in two divisions.—'The Illustration of Grammar' and 'The Illustration of Poetry and Rhetoric.' A subdivision of the latter is entitled 'Alankara or Embellishment,' which subject is again divided into 'Embellishment of Sound' and 'Embellishment of Matter.' The former, comprising rhyme and alliteration, has been already illustrated by Dr. Yates; but the latter, containing the figures of poetical rhetoric, has hitherto remained unnoticed by European writers. A large portion of the tenth book of the poem is devoted to this subject, a single stanza being given to each figure and to each of its varieties. This part of the poem Mr. Griffith has successfully rendered into English metre, imitating, as far as possible, the style and manner of the original, so as to exhibit the peculiar figure which each stanza was intended to illustrate; and has accompanied the translation with a commentary explanatory of the various figures, the terms by which they are designated, and the way in which they are classi-

fied,—presenting an interesting picture of the elaborate care which the Sanskrit poets bestowed upon their productions, and of the very minute and searching criticism to which poetry and rhetoric were subjected. The extraordinary difficulties attending the translation of such a work into any other language than the varied and copious one of the original would be sufficient to excuse a much worse version than that produced by the author of the paper.—C. Fraser, Esq., Major H. W. Trevelyan, J. F. M. Reid, Esq., Col. D. Capon, J. W. Bosanquet, Esq., and the Abbé Van Drival were elected.

SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIES.—Jan. 15.—Viscount Mahon, President, in the chair.—M. L. de Lisle of Paris was elected an honorary member. Dr. Roofs accompanied the exhibition of a very perfect Roman leaf-shaped sword-blade of bronze by a letter detailing the circumstances under which it had been found in the bed of the Thames near Kingston, where Cæsar had passed the river with his army. It was buried a short distance under the blue-clay and nine feet under the gravel, so as to show pretty clearly that this accumulation had taken place since the event. Mr. Wilson, who resides near the Wash, in Lincolnshire, exhibited another Roman sword-blade of the same material and even in a more perfect condition, for all the ornamental devices upon it were plainly visible. It had been dug up in one of the fens, and was not quite so long as the sword-blade of Dr. Roofs. A third weapon, of a later period, and of iron, was transmitted by a member whose name did not transpire. It was so corroded by rust that it was in two or three fragments.—The Hon. Mr. Neville covered the table with Anglo-Saxon remains discovered by him in his recent excavations in Cambridgeshire, especially at Little Wilbraham. They were all of bronze; but some of them had been gilt, and the gilding was as bright as when first put on. They consisted of fibule of various sizes, and of many forms,—several of them, especially the largest, being cruciform. The uses of some of the instruments did not appear to be known; but there was a separate case filled with small tweezers and other similar implements. In the whole, they were some hundreds in number. Mr. Neville's paper regarding them was filled with interesting details of facts connected with his discovery. There had clearly been a common burial-place at Little Wilbraham; and besides about 150 skeletons, a number of urns had been found,—none of them more than between four and five feet below the surface, embedded in the solid chalk. The writer was of opinion, from what he observed, that cremation and ordinary interment had prevailed at the same time, some persons preferring the one and some the other. The smaller fibule and most of the pairs of tweezers were contained in the urns; and many of the skeletons were evidently those of poor persons who possessed no ornaments. About 1,100 beads of different sizes and colours were met with, together with weapons and the umbos of shields. There were no signs of barrows in the field where these graves existed,—time and the plough having worn down all distinctive elevations. To Mr. Neville's paper the resident Secretary added some observations applying to the general character of the relics, and to similar remains found in other parts of our island. Mr. Neville, at the instance of several members, undertook on a future evening to furnish specimens of the urns and weapons exhumed by him, and now in his museum at Audley End. A good deal of conversation ensued regarding them; but though several members spoke at considerable length, the only fact elicited seemed to be, that the objects discovered at Little Wilbraham were unlike the relics which had been procured in Wiltshire as long ago as the time of Sir Colt Hoare.

STATISTICAL.—Jan. 19.—Lieut.-Col. Sykes, V.P., in the chair.—A paper by John Crawford, Esq., 'On the Statistics of Coffee,' was read.—Coffee (the *Coffea Arabica* of botanists) is a native of Abyssinia, where it is found in both the wild and the cultivated state; and was brought from thence to Arabia in comparatively very recent times

(1450):—it was not known to the Arabs therefore for more than 800 years after the time of Mohammed, and was introduced only between 40 and 50 years before the discovery of America. In about a century its use spread to Egypt and other parts of the Turkish empire, and thence found its way to Europe. A Turkish merchant of the name of Edwards brought the first bag of coffee to England, and his Greek servant made the first dish of English coffee in 1652 (under the Commonwealth). After entering on many details of the growth and spread of coffee, the paper gave the following probable estimate of the quantity of coffee produced in every part of the world at the present time:—Brazil, 176,000,000lb.; Java, 124,000,000lb.; the Philippines, 3,000,000lb.; Celebes, 1,000,000lb.; Arabia, 2,000,000lb.; Cuba and Porto Rico, 30,000,000lb.; Laguna and Porto Cabella, 35,000,000lb.; British West Indies, 8,000,000lb.; French and Dutch West Indies, 8,000,000lb.; Malabar and Mysore, 5,000,000lb.; St. Domingo, 35,000,000lb.; Ceylon, 40,000,000lb.; Sumatra, 5,000,000lb.; Costa Rica, 9,000,000lb.;—showing a total of 476,000,000lb., which, estimated in Europe at 50s. per cwt., would exceed the value of 10,000,000l.; and supposing 300,000,000lb. only to be subject to a duty of 3d. per lb., it would yield a revenue to the various European governments of 3,700,000l., with a prime cost to the consumer of 13,700,000l., while the additional expense of transport and wholesale and retail profits would raise the actual price paid by the consumer to 20,000,000l. per annum. The whole 476,000,000lb. if exported by sea would require for its conveyance 214,289 tons of shipping, exclusive of transshipment, which is very frequent; and the freight, at 2l. 10s. per ton, would amount to more than 530,000l. Some interesting details were then given of the relative quantities of coffee consumed in different countries, of which our own consumption was shown to be (1850) 31,226,840lb., or 1·13lb per head of the population of Great Britain and Ireland, and as compared with that of tea to be less than one-half, while in America the quantity of coffee consumed was four times that of tea; and the paper concluded by estimating the actual amount paid by the consumer in this country to be 12,000,000l. for tea, 3,000,000l. for coffee, and 10,000,000l. for tobacco, and argued that chicoree is not a substitute for coffee, and used only to dilute and to cheapen it. Its effects by bringing coffee within the reach of a wider class of consumers, would tend rather to enhance than diminish the consumption of coffee. In proof of which the consumption of coffee among Continental nations, who use chicoree largely, and where there has been no decrease but an increase while our own has fallen off, was adduced. The preference given to tea and its greater economy in use, it was argued are the causes of the decline in the consumption of coffee in England.

Lieut.-Col. Sykes read a paper 'On the Taxation and Revenue of the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Maine,'—in continuation of a former paper by him on the general statistics of that city, read before the Meeting of the British Association at York in 1844, and published in the seventh volume of the Journal of the Statistical Society, from which the subject of the present paper was omitted in the absence of authentic data, the budget being accessible to the public only since 1848. The following results were given in detail in the paper.

	1845	1846	1847
Total revenue including charges, including sinking fund....	Fl. 1,367,748	Fl. 1,350,977	Fl. 1,900,736
Balance	Fl. 1,413,160	Fl. 1,413,277	Fl. 1,417,493
Balance	Fl. 439,588	Fl. 435,700	Fl. 491,631

—which was to be applied in part to paying off the annual portion of the city debt, and in part as a surplus fund to provide for extraordinary expenditure.

LOANES.—Jan. 20.—R. Brown, Esq., in the chair.—A collection of plants from New South Wales was presented by R. Wakefield, Esq.—Mr. Turrell gave an account of a cedar planted in 1823, and now growing at Bishop's Stortford, 51 feet in height, and 21 feet from the ground to its first branch.—Dr. Joseph Hooker read a paper on the genus *Nostoc* of botanists,—more especially on a

species brought by Dr. Sutherland from the North Pole during the late Expedition in search of Sir John Franklin under Capt. Penny. The plant was found in great abundance in the ocean, and resembled the *Nostoc commune* of botanists. It was in sufficient quantities to be used as diet; and Dr. Sutherland having eaten some of it, pronounced it more agreeable and nutritious than the *Tripe de Roche*. Specimens of this plant had been sent to Mr. Berkeley; and from certain points in structure he considered it a new plant, and referred it provisionally to the genus *Hormosiphon*, under the name of *H. Arcticus*.—Dr. Hooker also gave an account of a species of *Nostoc* which he had discovered in Thibet—and of another in China—which seemed identical with the one brought from the North Pole.—A communication was read from Mr. J. Woods, consisting of observations made during a botanical tour in France in 1851.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.—Jan. 20.—J. M. Rendel, Esq., President, in the chair.—'On the Alluvial Formations, and the Local Changes, of the South-Eastern Coast of England. Second section,—from Beachy Head to Portland,' by Mr. J. B. Redman. Westward of Beachy Head the effects produced by local variations in the beach were traced,—the "fuls" trailing across the outfall of Cuckmere Haven, and driving the outlet eastward, creating a barrier of beach at Seaford,—at an early period the outfall of Newhaven Harbour,—where an ancient outlet existed on the site of the present entrance, subsequently projected eastward by the passage of shingle from the westward, until rendered permanent by piers. The recent degradation of the shore along Seaford Bay, from the shingle being arrested to the westward, and the unavailing attempt to stop this movement by blasting the cliff at Seaford Head, were noticed. The waste of the coast at Rottingdean, the modern changes at Brighton, the great variations in the outlet of Shoreham Harbour, until rendered permanent by artificial works, were examined, as well as the analogous effects on the coast generally at Pagham, across the entrance of which a spit had been formed, similar to those at the ancient harbours of Romney and Pevensey, and the anchorage of the Park, off Selsey Bill, once presumed to have been a portion of the site of a Bishop's see, prior to its removal to Chichester, owing to the progressive waste of the shore. At the back of the Isle of Wight, the peculiarities of the land-locked harbours, and the protection afforded by the shore defences to Portsmouth harbour, so little altered in its general outline, since the time of Henry the Eighth, were described, as also the remarkable promontory called Hurst Point, many of the characteristics of which were similar to those of the Chesil Bank, Calshot Point, and other formations, such as a low flat shore to leeward (eastward) and a highly inclined beach seaward, with a tendency to curve round to the northward and eastward, and eventually to enclose a tidal mere, or estuary. The elevation and size of the pebbles increased towards the extremity of these points, and in places on the sea slope an intermixture of coarse sand and shingle, which had become solid and homogeneous by age, cropped out through the modern beach. The remaining portion of the coast of Hampshire, and that of Dorsetshire, as far as Weymouth, were then minutely described, and the paper concluded with a particular account of the Chesil Bank, which in magnitude far exceeded all other formations of the kind, and which it was considered might be attributed to the waste of the great West Bay. Numerous diagrams, compiled from ancient and modern maps, together with sections and sketches of the various alluvial spits along the coast, were exhibited, and it was shown that all these local accumulations had many features in common, and were subject to the same alternating effects of loss and gain, and were the resultant of causes in constant operation, the whole exercising a most important influence on harbour and marine engineering generally.—In the discussion which ensued, in which Sir C. Lyell, Sir E. Belcher, Mr. Rennie, Capt. O'Brien, Mr. Scott Russell, and the author, took part, the peculiarities of the different parts

of the coast were still further described, and the formation of the moles of shingle were attributed by some of the speakers to the action of the tidal currents, but more generally by others to the mechanical power of the waves alone, which appeared to account for the apparent anomalous fact, that the largest pebbles were always found on the summit and to the leeward. Chesil, Hurst, and Dungeness beaches were referred to, as remarkable instances of results produced by such causes; and the effect of the severe storm of the 24th of November 1824, on the base of Hurst Beach was alluded to.

A short account of Mr. Deane's Submarine researches on the Shambles Shoal, off the Bill of Portland, was read, describing that shoal to consist entirely of a bed of small broken shells, arranged in parallel shelves, or steps, instead of, as had been supposed, being formed of boulders and pebbles. This peculiar arrangement of light shells, at depths varying from four to nine fathoms, must be the result of the action of the currents forming a spot comparatively without motion, and induced curious speculations as to the causes of the accumulation, and the effects that might be produced on similar aggregations by artificial works.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

- MON. Royal Institution, 4.—'On the Chemistry of the Metals,' by Mr. C. B. Mansfield.
 — British Architects, 8.
 — Entomological, 8.
 — Geographical, half-past 8.—'On Communication between the Atlantic and Pacific, via British North America,' by Capt. W. H. Sturge. (Second Part.)—'On the Distribution of Animal Life in the Arctic Regions,' by Mr. A. Petermann.
 — Institute of Actuaries, 7.—'On a New Columnar Arrangement in the D. and N. System, with an Explanation of a Simple Mode of Combining the Factors constituting the same,' by Mr. W. T. Thomson.
 TUES. Royal Institution, 4.—'On Animal Physiology,' by Prof. T. W. Jones.
 — Zoological, 9.—Scientific Business.—'On the Eggs of *Epiloria*,' by Prof. Owen.
 — Civil Engineers, 8.—'Description of a Cast-Iron Viaduct erected at Manchester, forming Part of the Joint Station of the London and North-Western and Manchester, Sheffield and Lincolnshire Railways,' by Mr. A. S. Jee.
 WED. Royal Institution, 4.—'On the Chemistry of the Metals,' by Mr. C. B. Mansfield.
 — Society of Arts, 8.—'On Tools and Machines for Working in Metal, Wood, and other Materials,' by the Rev. Prof. Willis.
 THURS. Royal Institution, 3.—'On the Physical Principles of the Steam-Engine,' by the Rev. J. Baily, M.A.
 — Antiquaries, 8.
 — Royal, half-past 8.
 FRI. Royal Institution, half-past 8.—'On Electro-Magnetic Clocks,' by Prof. Brande.
 SAT. Royal Institution, 3.—'On some of the Arts connected with Organic Chemistry,' by Prof. Brande.
 — Medical, 8.

FINE ARTS

THE PICTURES OF M. INGRES.

A collection of the works of M. Ingres, the well-known French painter, engraved by M. Reveil, has been recently published in Paris. The volume contains upwards of one hundred engravings,—and will be curious to all who may be interested in the history of French Art during the last half-century. M. Ingres forms the link between David, his master, and the painters of the present day, some of the best of whom may be reckoned among his pupils. In the artist world the chain of tradition is never interrupted, and masters and pupils follow each other in unbroken succession. Ingres reminds us of his master,—whose name in turn recalls the remembrance of the generation of painters to which he succeeded, from whom we can scarcely fancy ourselves divided by less than a century. David, in fact, represents the re-action against the laxity of Vanloo and Boucher, and we should remember the school to which he succeeded to judge him fairly. One must have little knowledge of the history of Art, or indeed of any kind of history, to be surprised at seeing the reform of which he was the uncompromising champion go beyond the bounds of moderation. It would be as absurd as to wonder that the early Puritans had not the toleration and cheerful piety which we expect—and sometimes find—in the present day. No man ever protested against the general errors of his day unless inflamed with a somewhat excessive zeal;—and The Horatii, 'The Sabines,' and 'The Leonidas' are there to prove to what lengths the love of academical severity and accuracy of outline carried David. It has been said by one of his admirers that his works could with-

out exception be translated into marble without losing any of their beauties,—and this observation comprises, we think, at once the best eulogium and severest criticism of his style. For David, as a painter, with all his faults and in spite of the imperial dullness which his example served to propagate, one cannot but feel respect. He stands forth amidst the degeneracy of an unruly period of Art in all the comparative harmony of despotic method. To return to the comparison which we have already made, he produces the effect of one of those stern and solemn Covenanters of whom posterity speaks with reverence while inwardly rejoicing that the present age calls for no such fearful virtues. M. Ingres has been to the painters of his day what David had been to his contemporaries; although it may be said that he has scarcely kept pace with changing circumstances—and that he prolonged an artistical movement which had ceased to be useful. For many years he was at the head of that faction of French Art which waged such angry war against the “colourists,”—and had, like all party chiefs, enthusiastic and injudicious admirers. This may perhaps account for the unmerited oblivion into which he has fallen; and many persons in the general public will perhaps learn with surprise that after fifty years of continuous and conscientious labour, M. Ingres is now engaged on a picture representing Joan of Arc, destined for the Luxembourg Gallery,—and another—for the Orleans family, we believe,—of which the subject is, Jesus Disputing in the Temple.—The collection engraved by M. Reville consists of 102 plates, accompanied by concise letter-press,—and gives a complete idea of the painter's well-filled artistical life. M. Ingres's works—like those of almost every French painter of any repute—are scattered over all parts of Europe, the native patron in France being a *rara avis*. His ‘Apotheosis of Homer,’ which decorates the ceilings of the Louvre,—and his ‘St. Peter receiving the Keys of Heaven,’ which is, or was a short time since, in the Luxembourg Gallery—will serve, however, to give the coming generation of Frenchmen a very fair idea both of his merits and of his defects.

FINE-ART GOSSIP.—Mr. Campbell, the sculptor, in his bronze statue of Lord George Bentinck, recently erected in Cavendish Square, has grappled well with the difficulties which modern costume imposes on the artist. The work offers a manly presentment,—following well in the direction given to the ornamentation of our metropolis in this line by the works of Chantrey and of Bailey.

Mr. Grundy of Regent Street has, on his usual terms, once more re-opened his rooms as a Winter Exhibition, with a collection of water-colour drawings of some of our principal artists.—It comprises on this occasion works of sufficient merit to repay the attention of the visitor.

Two of Blake's extraordinary productions—the Songs of Innocence and the Book of Urizen—engraved and coloured by himself, were sold on Wednesday last by Messrs. Sotheby & Wilkinson,—the Songs of Innocence for 4*l.* 14*s.* and the Urigen for 8*l.* 15*s.* The Songs of Innocence was unfortunately imperfect, wanting three plates out of the fifty-four,—but a perfect copy, we may observe, has never occurred for sale at a public auction. The Urigen was bought by Mr. Monckton Milnes.

Mr. Kilburn, the eminent daguerreotypist, has, we see, been engaged for several days at Windsor taking photographs of the Royal Family.

The directors of the Manchester Institution of Fine Art have, we understand, recently purchased Mr. F. R. Pickersgill's large picture of ‘Sampson and Delilah,’ which formed so prominent a feature in the Royal Academy Exhibition of 1850. A suitable pendant is thus provided to the large picture of ‘The Sirens,’ by the late Mr. Etty, purchased and presented to the above Institution by the firm of Messrs. Grant of the same town.—Provincial galleries set an example well worthy of the attention of the metropolitan or national one.

The Paris papers report the death, in that city, in his 85th year, of M. Louis Bertin Parant, a painter on ivory and porcelain of great eminence. As early as the days of the First Consulship he was distin-

guished by Napoleon; and his works on ivory executed by sovereign order during the Empire found their way as Imperial gifts into the collections of various princes of Europe. The *Journal des Débats* refers particularly to his Table representing the great generals of antiquity as having been presented by Louis the Eighteenth to the Prince Regent of England,—and being now in the possession of Queen Victoria.

From the same capital we learn that the lovers of fine and curious tapestries may have an early opportunity of gratifying their tastes in that respect. The collection of tapestries of Flanders and of the Gobelins belonging to the late King Louis Philippe—amounting to a hundred pieces—is to be brought to the hammer at Monceaux on the 28th inst. Some of the Flemish tapestries are after the Cartoons of Rubens,—and some of those executed at the Gobelins are copies of Watteau.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

SACRED HARMONIC SOCIETY, EXETER HALL.—CONDUCTOR, Mr. COSTA.—On WEDNESDAY NEXT, JACQUES MENDELSSOHN'S ‘HYMN OF PRAISE’ and ‘ATHALIE,’ Vocalists: Mrs. Enderjohn, Miss Dolby, Miss M. Williams, and Mr. Locker. The illustrative verses to ‘Athalie’ will be recited by Mr. Vanhook. On Friday week, February 6, MENDELSSOHN'S ‘ELIJAH,’ Vocalists: Mrs. Enderjohn, Miss Amy Dolby, Miss Dolby, Miss M. Williams; Mr. Sims Reeves, Mr. Walker, Mr. Norval, Mr. Smythson, and Mr. H. Phillips. The Orchestra, the most extensive in Exeter Hall, will consist of (including 16 double basses) nearly 700 performers. Tickets, 3*s.*; Reserved, 5*s.*; Central Area, numbered seats, 10*s.* 6*d.* each at the Society's Office, in Exeter Hall, where all subscriptions will be received, dating from Christmas last, entitling to admission to the above performances.

MR. AGUILAR'S SECOND SOIRÉE OF CLASSICAL PIANOFORTE MUSIC from the Works of Beethoven will take place at the Beethoven Rooms, 27, Queen Anne Street, on TUESDAY, January 27, at half-past eight o'clock.—Programme: Sonata, Pathétique—Song—Sonata, Piano and Violin, Op. 13, No. 2.—Song—Sonata, Op. 29, No. 1.—Bagatelles. Mr. Aguilar will be assisted by Miss Mesent and Herr Janna. Single Tickets, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Triple Tickets, 21*s.*, to be had of Mr. Aguilar, 68, Upper Norton Street, and at all the principal Music Publishers.

BEETHOVEN ROOMS, 27, Queen Anne Street.—Mr. NEATE has the honour to announce that he will give SIX QUARTETS and PIANOFORTE SOIRÉES, on alternate WEDNESDAYS, commencing on the 15th of February. The Quartets on each evening will comprise one of each of the great Authors, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, and will be executed by Messrs. Salton, Cooper, Hill, and Piatti. Mr. Neate proposes to perform on each evening a Concerted Pianoforte Piece and a Solo, selected from the best Classical Authors.—Application for Subscriptions may be made at Mr. Neate's residence, 5, Chapel Street, Portland Place; and at the principal Music Shops. Terms for the Series, 30*s.*; for Three Soirées, One Guinea; and for a Single Soirée, Half-a-Guinea.

MRS. FANNY KEMBLE'S READINGS OF SHAKESPEARE.—MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM, with MENDELSSOHN'S MUSIC.—Mr. MITCHELL respectfully announces that Mrs. FANNY KEMBLE will commence a Series of Readings of the Plays of Shakspeare, at the St. James's Theatre, King Street, on TUESDAY EVENING, February 3, 1852, on which occasion Mrs. KEMBLE will read MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM, accompanied by the whole of the whole of MENDELSSOHN'S MUSIC, by an efficient Orchestra and Chorus, under the Direction of Mr. LUGAR.—Mrs. Kemble's Readings will take place every Monday Morning, and every Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday Evenings, during the Month of February. The Selection of Plays will be duly announced. Boxes, Stalls, and Tickets may be secured at Mr. Mitchell's Royal Library, 33, Old Bond Street, and at the principal Libraries and Musicellers.

LONDON THURSDAY CONCERTS, Exeter Hall.—Immense success of the GRAND Glee and Chorus, and FULL MILITARY BAND.—THE FIFTH Concert of the MEXICALI will take place on THURSDAY NEXT, January 29, when the most eminent Artists will appear with the above attractions.—Vide Programmes at the Musicellers. Tickets, 1*s.* and 2*s.*; Stalls numbered, 4*s.*

ST. MARTIN'S HALL.—Monthly Concerts.—On Wednesday evening—betwixt Mendelssohn's ‘Ninety-fifth Psalm’ and Handel's ‘Alexander's Feast’—a satisfactory vindication of the English power to compose was afforded in a repetition of Mr. H. Leslie's ‘Festival Anthem.’ This work well bears repeating. The fine, bold, and well-contrasted movements which it contains, now that they are familiarly known to singers and orchestra, increasingly content us, not by their solidity only, but by the absence from them of borrowed inspiration. In the few numbers in which Mr. Leslie is less forcible and more timid, it is nevertheless evident that he has aspired after beauty as well as effect. When this is the case—and when science is not wanting—there is little fear but that further practice in writing will confirm such aspiration by entire fulfilment.—Another English composition performed at the first Monthly Concert was a Sacred Song, by Mr. S. Waley, for a *soprano*,—on words from the Psalm ‘By the rivers of Babylon.’ Of this we must speak in high praise, not merely because it is correctly written, nervously conducted, and well scored, but because it expresses the deep melancholy and fond enthusiasm belonging to the beautiful passage of Holy Writ

selected. After his lament, the singer, required by those “that led him away captive” to make “melody in his heaviness,” rises in the momentary elevation of proud remembrance to such a strain of stately and impassioned grandeur, on the words “If I forget thee, O Jerusalem,” as brought back vividly to our mind the incomparable prison-scene in ‘Ivanhoe’ betwixt the Templar and the Jewess, and Rebecca’s “Such were the Princes of the House of Jacob!” It is not often that we meet with a case of conception in music more lofty and picturesque than this. Surely the Psalm is worth completing;—the writer who has so vividly called up the glories of the Holy City might be well trusted with the terrible imprecation on “the daughter of Babylon” in which the captive “in a strange land” takes refuge from the recoiling bitterness of his thoughts.—We have still to add, that in this work Mr. Waley has kept honourably clear of secular sentiment or romance. The sobriety of sacred music pervades the song, though it is neither meagre nor antiquated in style. As Mr. Waley is the first of Herr Molique's pupils in composition whose works we have met, we must lastly name the master to whom we owe a pupil capable of producing something so good without pedantry, and, without false brilliancy, so effective.—Mr. Hullah's choruses sang well; and the Concert altogether went off with spirit.—The singers were, Miss Birch, Miss Alleyne (a fairly promising *soprano*), Mr. Bodd, and Mr. Swift. The latter gentleman distinguished himself in the first act particularly; singing and declaiming his music with taste and expression. As a light *tenor* Mr. Swift should prove a great acquisition; provided always that he refrain from forcing his voice, and will give yet a little attention to his articulation, which is at present too close, and therefore not always sufficiently audible. There is no possibility of a singer gaining distinction in sacred music without a refined, as distinguished from a mousing, utterance of his text. Strange to say, few parts seem so universally neglected as this; and we too often get the only refined and distinct English declamation of the day from the Stockhouses, Caradoris, and Viardots who have painfully studied our twisted vowels and guttural consonants, as foreigners, not as native pupils.

THE ENGLISH GLEE AND MADRIGAL UNION.—The first really satisfactory performance of music at which we have been present during this unusually quiet January was, the first meeting of the *English Glee and Madrigal Union*, on Monday. Execution of its kind more exquisite cannot be imagined. The party sing with all the finish of the glee-singers who delighted our fathers,—but are entirely clear of that sickly taste perpetually to slacken time and diminish tone which used to convert ‘The Midges’ Dance’ into something like a song of midges,—and made us wonder when “the dying fall” of the harmonized ‘O Nanny’ would die utterly and “be done with.”—Whether or not the advanced musical requisitions of our time may be thanked for the colour, animation, and accent of this accomplished party,—certain it is, that we have none of the old traditional languors to complain of,—but as much breadth as can be given, and as much delicacy as can be dreamed of. We have never, let it be repeated, heard more perfect specimens of execution than the performance of ‘Ye spotted snakes,’ ‘Blessed pair of ayres,’ and ‘By Celia's arbour,’ on Monday,—nor, in our experience, has the music of England been so well represented.

DRURY LANE.—On Friday, Miss Glyn acted *Julia*, in ‘The Hunchback.’ She was in one of her happiest veins, and played with extraordinary force and pathos. The great speech in the fifth act was given with increased energy;—indeed, the practice of reading entire plays has manifestly improved the power and compass of Miss Glyn's voice.—On Monday, she performed *Lady Macbeth* for the last time of her “present engagement.” Miss Glyn is about to proceed forthwith to Glasgow;—but will return in a month to appear at Drury Lane in the character of *Cleopatra*.

PUNCH'S PLAYHOUSE.—‘The Juvenile Party’ is a new piece, introducing Mrs. Charles Selby in the character of an antiquated maiden aunt, educating her nephew, *Master Charles Criterion* on a principle of her own,—that of indulging him in all his whims. At a juvenile party, he is brought into contact with another boy, *Master Bounce*, brought up by the *Captain*, his father, on a system of severe coercion. A juvenile party gives opportunity for testing the effects of the two plans;—which, being both in extreme, are found to be equally faulty.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—A miscellaneous concert was given yesterday week at the Hanover Square Rooms in assistance of the workmen of Messrs. Collard & Collard, whose tools, valued at 2,000*l.*, were destroyed in the late fire at the pianoforte manufactory in Camden Town. The concert is said to have been fairly productive. The *Glee and Madrigal Union*, too, purposes to devote an evening's receipts to the fund. Further, the advertised amount of private contribution is considerable; but the total sum raised is as yet entirely insufficient to make up the loss,—and by thus calling attention to it we may possibly reach the sympathies of some disposed to be helpful in the matter.—While on the subject of damage wrought by fire, we may with propriety advert to the accident in the cellars at Exeter Hall the other evening, when not only the valuable library of the *Sacred Harmonic Society* but the entire building was perilled. Had the alarm occurred when the great room was filled with a crowded audience the consequences might have been terrible, whatever the fate of the building had been,—so totally inadequate are the means of entrance and exit to the rapid dispersion of even a moderately numerous congregation. This matter should, and we trust will, be looked to; but is it not lamentable that our architects, in their total disregard of the purposes to which their buildings will be applied, should so often remind us of Madame d'Arbly, who, when building *Camilla Cottage* out of the profits of her novel, is said to have forgotten the staircase until after the fabric was raised to its entire height? Not long ago a large sum of money and great ingenuity were laid out in doing what should have been done when Exeter Hall was built,—namely, making it a room in which sound can be clearly heard,—and now it appears most desirable that a second outlay should be demanded for the purpose of overcoming the yet graver defect to which we have adverted.

A day or two since the death of Mr. G. H. Rodwell took place, after some months of painful illness. He will be remembered in the dramatic world as a writer of ballad operas and *extravaganzas*;—and was, besides, the author of one or two humorous works in light literature.

We have received the annual circular of the Philharmonic Society, announcing that the concerts for the ensuing season (its fortieth) are fixed for March 15 and 29; April 19; May 3, 17, and 31; June 14 and 28.—With all its stir, however, this has been a week of cross-purposes and postponements. The ‘*Aminta*’ of Mr. Howard Glover is remanded till Monday next.—Great was the disturbance at Drury Lane on Thursday evening, owing to the non-appearance of Mr. and Mrs. Sims Reeves, in consequence of the lady's illness.—We are informed, too, that Mr. Macfarren's new cantata, ‘*Lenore*,’ which was ready for performance at St. Martin's Hall on Wednesday evening, was withdrawn by its composer “at the eleventh hour.”

The commencement of Mr. Ella's series of evening chamber-concerts on Thursday next will be marked by the appearance of the first of those stranger artists who come to London for their season. This is Herr Pauer, the pianist. Perhaps the early arrival of this gentleman may denote his intention of permanently taking up his residence in London; since there is now ample room here for a first-class player of classical music. Some of our best English professors are too severely worn out by the labour of incessant teaching to command at will the energy, the spirit, and the fancy which are claimed for public performance. These, under more congenial circumstances, can hardly be main-

tained (save by persons so marvellously endowed as Mendelssohn) without habitual practice with reference to the public. The want should have been supplied by M. Thalberg; but he can hardly be said at any time to take part in the classical music of London,—and is now announced to be meditating a concert-tour in America.

Our contemporaries state that Mdlle. Jenny Lind is expected to arrive from America early in February. The enthusiasm of the American journals seems of late to have in some degree deserted the track of her triumphal car, and to be now “flowing full and free” (as Moore sings) in the train of Miss Catharine Hayes.

Signor Luigi Ricci, who was on his way to St. Petersburg to superintend the rehearsals of his ‘*Rolla*,’ died on the road.—Madame Medori, who has been singing as third *prima donna* in the Russian capital during the earlier part of the winter, has returned to Brussels, where she is a favourite, to replace Madame Castellan.

At Paris, the concerts of the *Conservatoire* have begun.—M. Henri Herz and Herr Ernst have been giving grand concerts there.—The opera by M. Duprez recently produced at Brussels, and Mr. Balfé's ‘*Bohemian Girl*,’ are about to be given at the third Opera-house.—Other restorations have been made at the *Grand Opéra* besides that of its name. The old drop-curtain which displayed a picture of Louis Quatorze awarding the management of the *Académie* to Lulli has been rummaged out and furnished up with two eagles added to bring the device into harmony with the existing order of affairs!—M. Halévy's new grand opera may be shortly expected.—Considerable interest seems to have been excited in the artistic world of Paris by the revival of Molière's ‘*Bourgeois Gentilhomme*’ with as much of Lulli's music as (to put the case rudely) could be made endurable.

“M. Gounod,” says the *Gazette Musicale*, “was commissioned to arrange for the public of these days Lulli's music.” * * He composed the air for the *garçons tailleurs* in place of the original air, which was not sufficiently gay for the position. The connoisseurs might well be deceived who attributed to the old master this new composition, so carefully was it studied after the ancient style.”

Foreign journals announce the death of M. Frederic Samuel von Silverstolpe, a Swedish diplomatist, who, also, for some twenty years directed the Theatre Royal at Stockholm. The musical library left by this gentleman is said to be interesting and valuable,—comprising, among other items, many manuscript compositions by Haydn. The number of these, by the way, must be bewildering, supposing no destruction to have taken place; since one of the best accustomed musical anecdotes is the necessity laid upon Haydn in his early years daily to furnish the Prince Esterhazy with a fresh piece for the baritone, on which instrument the Prince was a performer.—A new opera by Herr Dorn, the *quondam* chapel-master at Cologne, is in rehearsal at the Grand Opéra at Berlin.—There, too, has been recently produced, with great care and in presence of the Prussian Court, the operetta by Mendelssohn best known here as ‘*Son and Stranger*.’ The success was most brilliant,—almost every piece having been *encored*; and the work, we apprehend, after such a warrant, will henceforth take its place as possibly the solitary classical one-act opera existing in the library of music.

MISCELLANEA

A Study for the Million.—(The following is abridged from the *Norfolk News*).—We announced last week the death of Johnson Jex, the learned blacksmith of Letheringsett. He was the son of William Jex, a blacksmith, and was born at Billingford, in this county, in or about the year 1778. In his boyhood he was sent to a day school, but he has often been heard to say that although he was sent off to school for years, he never went three months in his life. He frequently walked to Foulsham instead, to look in at the shop-window of Mr. Mayes, a watchmaker, who resided there. He did not learn to read or write at school, but taught himself afterwards. His mechanical talent manifested itself at a very early age. With regard to Jex's first experiment in clock-work, the following anecdote is related.

When about twelve or thirteen years of age, a watchmaker went to his mother's house to clean her clock. Jex watched him while he took it in pieces, cleaned the works, and put them together again. No sooner had he left than the boy determined to try whether he could not do the same. He at once went to work, and completed his task with all the skill and exactitude of an experienced hand. (He did not mention this occurrence till several years afterwards.) From that time he began to turn his attention to watch and clock making, and eventually attained great excellence in the art. When about thirteen years old he became acquainted with Mr. Mayes, of whom mention has already been made. Mr. Mayes's attention was first attracted towards Jex by frequently observing him look in at his window. He at length asked him what he wanted. Jex replied, he “wished to see that thing”—pointing to a newly invented instrument for either clock or watch making. Mr. Mayes showed it him, but did not allow him to touch it. Jex declared he “could make one like it,” and he accordingly did so in about a month. Mr. Mayes was delighted with the talent and ingenuity displayed by the boy, and from that time took great pleasure in showing him anything connected with his business. At his death he left Jex a legacy of 50*l.*, as a proof of the high esteem he entertained for him. In early life Jex was by no means robust in health, and he afterwards declared his belief that working at the bout-hammer, at the blacksmith's anvil, had been the means of strengthening his constitution and saving his life. Some particulars of Jex's early history are given in Young's ‘*General View of the Agriculture of the County of Norfolk*.’ We subjoin the following extract, written about the year 1802. “Under the head implements, I must not conclude without mentioning a person of most extraordinary mechanical talents. Mr. Jex, a young blacksmith at Billingford, at sixteen years of age, having heard that there was such a machine as a way-measurer, he reflected by what machinery the result could be produced, and set to work to contrive one; the whole was his own invention. It was done, as might be expected, in a round-about way, a motion too accelerated, corrected by additional wheels, but throughout the complexity such accurate calculations were the basis of his work, that when finished and tried it was perfectly correct without alteration. His inventive talents are unquestionable. He has made a machine for cutting watch pinions, a deepening tool, a machine for cutting and finishing watch-wheel teeth, of his own invention, a clock-barrel and fusee engine, made without ever seeing anything of the kind. He made a clock, the teeth of the wheels cut with a hack saw, and the balance with a half-round file. He has made an electrical machine, and a powerful horse-shoe magnet. Upon being shown by Mr. Munnings a common barrow-drill, the delivery by a notched cylinder, he invented and wrought an absolutely new delivery; a brass cylinder, with holes, having moveable plugs governed by springs which clear the holes or cups, throwing out the seed of any size with great accuracy; and not liking the application of the springs on the outside of the cylinder, reversed the whole; and in a second, now making, placed them most ingeniously within it.” Shortly after Young's notice of him was written, Jex removed to Letheringsett, near Holt, where he worked as a common blacksmith till within the last thirty years. Since that time he has employed workmen in the practical part of his business, but he continued till his decease to live in the house adjoining the blacksmith's shop. The first watch ever constructed by Jex was made after he had settled at Letheringsett, for his friend the Rev. T. Munnings, of Gorset, near Dereham. Every part of this watch, including the silver face, and every tool employed in its construction, were of Jex's own making. One of the greatest efforts of Jex's inventive powers was the construction of a gold chronometer, with what is technically termed a “detached escapement” and compensating balance, which was made long before he ever saw or heard of the “detached escapement”—the principle of which has since been so successfully applied by Arnold and Earnshaw. Jex turned the jewels himself, made the cases, the chain, the mainspring, and indeed every part of the watch, except the dial. The very instruments with which he executed this wonderful piece of

mechanism were of his own workmanship. It is only by watchmakers themselves that this triumph of skill can be adequately appreciated. They know that no single man is ever employed to make a complete chronometer, but that different parts of the mechanism are entrusted to different hands, and that many are employed upon a single watch. This watch is now in the possession of Mr. Blakeley, of Norwich. Such was Jex's thirst for information, and such was his resolution to clear away every obstacle which impeded his progress, that, wishing to read some French works on Horology, he mastered, *unassisted*, the French language, when about sixty years of age! He then read the books in question, but found that they contained nothing which was new to him, he having become thoroughly acquainted with the subject by previous study of English authors. Another of Jex's inventions was a lathe of extraordinary power and ingenuity, which remained in his possession until his death. By means of this lathe, he was enabled to cut the teeth of wheels mathematically correct into any number, even or odd, up to 2,000, by means of a dividing plate. He also constructed a lathe on a minute scale for turning diamonds, which is very complicated in its structure. He likewise invented an air-tight furnace door for his own greenhouse, so constructed that the fire would keep lighted from Saturday night till Monday morning, thus obviating the necessity of attending to it on Sunday. About ten years ago he invented a method of opening greenhouse windows to any required width, and so fastened that the wind has no power over them. Jex was also an iron and brass founder, a glass blower, a maker of mathematical instruments, barometers, thermometers, gun barrels, air guns, &c. Jex understood electricity, galvanism, electro-magnetism, &c., and had a thorough knowledge of chemistry as far as the metals are concerned. Amongst other sciences, Jex understood astronomy, and could calculate the time by the fixed stars. In taking astronomical observations, he was accustomed to make use of his own door-posts and a chimney opposite. He made telescopes and *metallic reflectors*, which are universally acknowledged to be extremely difficult of construction. He was naturally a timid man, and excessively afraid of contagion; yet he lived in a state of filth which was almost sufficient of itself to generate disease. He never allowed a woman to enter his house for the sake of cleaning it, and his rooms consequently contained the accumulated dust of years. His disposition was shy and retiring; but whenever he met with any one whose tastes were similar to his own, he would converse for hours with the greatest delight on any subject connected with the arts and sciences. He was a man of the strictest integrity, and of unimpeachable veracity. He was *entirely* destitute of the love of money, and sought out truth for its own sake, and with no view to any personal gain. Such an example is rare indeed in this grasping and selfish age. He was kind in his manner to the poor, and rarely sent a mendicant away without relief. In 1845, Jex had a stroke of paralysis, from the effects of which he never entirely recovered. His intellect gradually lost much of its original power, and the last year or two especially, a very marked alteration was perceptible. He was again attacked with paralysis in November last, and his death took place on the 5th of this month. His remains are interred in Letheringsett churchyard.

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20	On or before 14th May, 1891.	£1,000	£19 6 8	£16 15 5
30	1,000	24 8 4	24 8 4	21 4 4
40	1,000	42 15 0	35 10 0	32 10 0
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